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NOVEMBER 1961

The Reading Teacher

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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PUBLISHED BY THE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION



The Reading Teacher

Vol. 15, No. 2

November, 1961

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THE READING TEACHER is published six times a year, September, November, December, January, March and May, by the International Reading Association (IRA). Headquarters: 5454 South Shore Drive, Room 707-709, Chicago 15, Illinois. Mailed to all members of the IRA in good standing according to its constitution and by-laws. Available to institutions at a subscription of \$4.50 per year. Single copies, \$1.25 each; 5-19 copies, \$1.00 each; 20 or more copies, 75¢ each. Articles in this journal are indexed in the *Educational Index*. Copyright 1961 by the International Reading Association, Inc. Second class mail privileges authorized at Chicago, Ill., with an additional entry at New York, N.Y. *Business correspondence should be sent to the headquarters of the IRA. Manuscripts and correspondence on editorial matters should be sent to the Editor at the Reading-Study Center, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware. Books for review should be sent to Dr. George Spache, Director, Reading Laboratory and Clinic, 310 Anderson Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.*



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Extravagance

ETYMOLOGICALLY, to wander outside the bounds represents a fair account of the word *extravagance*. To this may be added the implication of indifference to restraints, such as of truth, decency, prudence, or the like. In these times of the spectacular, the colossal, the stupendous—even extravaganza has taken on new meaning. The biggest bomb, the mightiest thrust, the fastest plane—and how wonderful it will be if to this list we can continue to add: the finest schools!

Is it extravagant of the Board of Directors of the International Reading Association to support one issue of *The Reading Teacher* that does not have a theme? Read this issue and see what your verdict is.

Annually many unsolicited papers are submitted for publication in this periodical. Annually only a few can be published. And the choosing of the few becomes increasingly difficult. There are so many voices that should be heard, ideas that should be shared. Perhaps you will decide that this issue does not represent an extravagance.

For many years the common method of reading instruction was a form of round-the-robin oral reading. The protests against this barren and meaningless technique culminated in the production of the classic Twenty-fourth Yearbook which did not include a chapter on oral reading. This was followed by the Thirty-sixth Yearbook with one chapter on oral reading. The emphasis on silent reading, for which there was hardly an instance that had not its counterpart

in thorough comprehension, was undoubtedly worth while. Were the men who took this firm stand being extravagant yet truthful and prudent?

In recent years much writing and much talking has been done about the teaching of phonics or phonetics. Much of this has been uttered in a harsh or bitter spirit. Do these attacks represent an extravagance our schools can afford? Is there a need for a standing together so as to produce a classic like those prepared in 1923 and 1935—a classic on phonetics that will be clear and firm and of good judgment?

Schools are the bulwark of our democracy. With this none will disagree—neither the most ordinary citizen on the street nor the most exalted. This being true, it is also true that as a nation, where education is concerned, we can never be extravagant. There are no bounds. But there are restraints of truth, decency, and prudence. Billions for defense, for super-bombs and missiles, and for a trip to the moon! What do we seek first?

If we agree that, where the education of our children is concerned, there are no bounds, could we then agree that if we all (educators, politicians, clergymen) sought this first, all the other things we seek as a nation would be added unto us? Let us not be weary in doing this task well; but, as we have opportunity, let us be extravagant with all our children. Being rooted and grounded in learning, they, in turn, may then comprehend all that is—with breadth, and length, and depth, and height.

—R.G.S.

Reading Methods for the English Language

by GERTRUDE HILDRETH

THE CONTROVERSY over phonics versus "look and say" in teaching reading is still very much alive judging from the attention given to this topic in educational circles and in the press. The question first arose about three hundred years ago when Comenius introduced the word-picture method of teaching beginners to read, along with the traditional ABC charts. With the application of scientific research methods to comparative studies of reading in the 1920's, new facts were added but no definite conclusion was reached as to the relative merit of phonics in contrast to other methods. In *Why Johnny Can't Read*, Dr. Rudolf Flesch asserted that children were failing to learn to read because they were taught by guessing at words instead of first learning to sound out the letters. A recent research monograph from England by Dr. Joyce M. Morris (1959) reported investigations of reading methods and outcomes in primary schools located in Kent, England (8). Morris devised a questionnaire which was used as the basis of an interview with head teachers in sixty primary schools in 1954. The first question was: Which of the following methods are used in your school: alphabetic, phonic, look and say, sentence? The author regarded these four methods as the main ones used in the teaching of reading in England.

All sixty schools used a combina-

tion method, and all of them taught phonics either as the introduction to reading or sometime during the early period of instruction. The results as measured by the Watts-Vernon Reading Tests at the end of the primary period, age 10+, showed that the Kent schools were somewhat above the national average. Even so, 22 per cent of the children tested, 1,735 in all, were rated as backward, including a few semi-literates and non-readers, a figure comparable to results in our public schools located in good districts. Although the teachers who were interviewed mentioned a long list of factors responsible for reading retardation, the most frequently mentioned single factor was "low intelligence."

Difficulties with English Orthography

Through all the discussion of methods for teaching beginners to read, the irregular English spelling as a source of difficulty in learning to read and spell has been largely overlooked. Many years ago Dr. Edmund Burke Huey, an American reading authority, called attention to inconsistent English orthography as a source of confusion for school beginners (6). More recently, Dr. Frank C. Laubach, in the course of devising literacy lessons in English, called attention to the many "booby traps" in our commonest words. Dr. John Carroll, Dr. M. D. Vernon, and Dr.

Morris have all mentioned chaotic English spelling as an impediment in learning to read and spell.

The use of our alphabet for encoding the English language is both obsolete and illogical. There are not enough letters to represent the different sounds, using only one alphabet character to a sound, and there is marked inconsistency in using the letters to represent the various unit sounds or phonemes. Inconsistency is greater in the case of vowel sounds. English in print is alphabetic, fundamentally a phonetic language, but many of our commonest words contain irregular features or violate spelling rules. Consider for example: Do you know your piece by heart?

The complications for the young learner can be summarized as uncertainty over vowel sounds, exceptions to pronunciation and spelling rules, silent letters, two sounds for the same consonant, and the blending problems that ensue in trying to "sound through" unfamiliar words. These difficulties explain why the reader or writer of English can never be quite sure of the pronunciation of new words in print or achieve perfect accuracy in spelling. There are no sure clues to the pronunciation of such words as *health*, *two*, *many*, *debt*, *women*, *ache*, *broad*, *search*, *trouble*, *guess*.

In English, word recognition is always something of a guessing game. The pupils must learn the exceptions to the pronunciation rules and form the habit of checking word meanings in context. With uncertainty over word recognition in reading and con-

fusion over spelling, most pupils need help with word recognition and spelling all the way through school.

Advantages of Language with Consistent Orthography

In contrast to English, languages with consistent phonetic spelling are relatively easy to teach and learn, for example, Spanish, Czech, Russian, Turkish, Moro (Philippines). The ease of learning to read in languages with consistent orthography has been reported by teachers, foreigners learning the new language, and by those who have had experience in teaching English with a revised alphabet such as Dr. Laubach's Streamlined English. After experience in teaching in several hundred languages, Dr. Laubach concluded that teaching a phonetically consistent language worked like magic (7).

With regular spelling, the learner has confidence that each sound in a word will always be represented by the letters used for that sound in other words, e.g., *fotograf* (photograph), *fabrika* (factory), *gazeta* (newspaper), and word attack by "sounding through" is more apt to be correct. There is less difficulty with blending, hence the learner more quickly catches the correct meaning of the word from his own attempt to pronounce it. This in turn leads to fluent interpretation of sentences and the satisfaction that comes from catching on to the trick of meaningful reading. From the start the beginner can help himself and is less dependent on the teacher or another pupil for help with words. A larger

vocabulary of words familiar to the child in oral conversation can be introduced in beginning books, and less attention needs to be given to vocabulary control and word repetition of the reading text. During reading lessons the teacher does not need to talk or explain so much even in beginning stages; the pupil spends more of his time in working out meanings for himself during reading.

A pupil who can use a word correctly in speaking can usually spell it, e.g., *ofis* (office), *adres* (address). In English it is necessary to memorize the spelling of hundreds of irregular words and to learn a number of spelling words having frequent exceptions. The advantages of consistent orthography are most obvious when the pupil undertakes a piece of independent writing.

All these advantages were evident in my observations of Turkish children learning to read and write during the school year 1959-60. Within the first term typical children were helping themselves to words, and by the end of the year they were working with easy little story books. Within a few months they were chalking up walls and sidewalks with simple words and phrases correctly spelled (3).

Aside from the factor of phonetic consistency or irregularity, are there basic differences in languages in print that facilitate or complicate learning to read? Dr. W. S. Gray investigated this matter by means of a survey of eye-movement habits of mature readers who read material of comparable difficulty in fourteen different lan-

guages (2). The results of two tests in both silent and oral reading showed striking similarity in the characteristics of the eye movements in the different languages. Dr. Gray concluded that reading patterns around the world involved essentially the same perceptual process regardless of the form and structure of the language.

There is ample evidence that learning to read and write English does not present insurmountable obstacles. All of us who are literate mastered these skills in due course of time. English reading with its chaotic spelling has a built-in protection against meaningless word-calling because difficulty in pronouncing the commonest words forces the young reader to think about meanings and to read with understanding. He cannot read merely by glibly pronouncing the words.

Meeting the Handicaps of English Orthography

Attempts to correct the chief faults of English spelling go back at least as far as Benjamin Franklin, who urged the adoption of a new alphabet. Franklin pointed out that the spoken language was constantly changing, both in pronunciation and word meanings, but that spelling had persisted with little change through the years. An account of more recent spelling simplification proposals has been given by Tauber and Beck (9).

From time to time proposals have been made for converting to a consistent English phonoscript system, at least for teaching reading. An illustration of such a system is given in Dr.

Huey's book mentioned above. None of these systems has been permanently adopted. The standard dictionary supplies consistent respellings for every word as guides to correct pronunciation. The commonest device to overcome the confusion young children experience in beginning to read with misspelled English has been to control the vocabulary of the readers in the interest of phonetic regularity,

The cat had a fat rat.
Win bit on a pin.
Jud fell in the mud.

as these excerpts from early primers suggest.

Dr. Leonard Bloomfield concluded some years ago that the irregularities of English spelling demand careful handling in order not to confuse the child (1). He recommended strict phonetic control of the vocabulary of beginning reading instruction. The words used at first should show each letter in only one phonetic value, and words with irregular features should be excluded until later. The only exception would be the inclusion of essential words such as *have* or *of*, needed for sentence meaning. This suggestion of phonic control has been followed up with good results in primary reading experiments. The chief drawback to the use of this specially prepared phonetic reading material is that it tends to become artificial, in contrast to the familiar wording of the children's experience charts.

What is the Phonetic Method?

All of the teachers who assert that they adhere to a phonetic method in beginning reading may not be talking

about the same thing. Several interpretations of the term are possible: (1) Ability to name the sounds at the sight of letter symbols or letter groups and vice versa, (2) The ability to read through the sounds and to blend letters within a word so as to pronounce the word, (3) The ability to group words by the phonetic elements they contain, for example, giving rhyming words, and (4) The use of recurring sounds within words as clues to unfamiliar words met during context reading.

A beginner could show a measure of competency in the first without succeeding in the others. He could become proficient in the second and third without being able to use these skills in context reading. The fourth alternative is the heart of the method, the skill needed by the young learner in independent silent reading.

Forming associations between a series of letter forms and the sounds they represent is a fairly simple process, but learning to read involves more than naming sounds or identifying words that rhyme:

bell, tell, dell; dot lot, not

Learning to give sounds at sight of specific letters, and vice versa, unquestionably has value in developing sensitivity to the different sounds in the language and perception of the different letters that represent them, but using this knowledge in reading requires a higher level of thinking and reasoning. A beginner could do as Dr. Flesch recommended, learn 151 phonic elements and six phonic rules and still not learn to read. In fact, children who have been thoroughly

drilled in letter sounds ahead of work with whole words in and out of context tend to "over apply" phonics when they begin to read.

E. W. Dolch, Fred J. Schonell, and others have demonstrated that a child needs a mental age of seven to be able to use phonics in breaking down words into elements as a method of word attack during reading. This use of phonics requires a higher age level than forming the association between a series of letter forms and their commonest sounds.

The frequency of derived forms in English, for example, *happy*, *happiness*, *happier*, *unhappy*, suggests that other valuable clues to word recognition come from analysis of root words, prefixes, and endings. This sort of practice is needed at the stage when vocabulary is rapidly increasing and the children have become sensitive to related word groups.

The mature reader has long since passed the stage of needing to sound out words or pronounce by syllables to catch clues to meaning during silent reading. He absorbs the thought automatically, largely through a process of "look and think." But the beginner unfamiliar with words in print reads aloud for the most part, pausing to recall or to sound out the individual words in the sentences.

Without daily practice in simple "mileage" reading the beginners might never learn to use phonic elements as clues to word recognition during reading. Laboriously sounding through a few words letter-by-letter is no more true reading than is guessing at meanings of sentences from the

accompanying pictures or repeating sentences from memory.

In Conclusion

There is obviously no magic method for teaching English reading that takes the guesswork out of word recognition. The best teaching involves a combined method in which the children have a maximum amount of practice learning words, in thinking the meanings of words in context, in using pronunciation and other clues to word recognition in the process. Reading is essentially problem solving. It always involves an element of trial and error, of guessing. "What word is this?" "What does this sentence mean?"

The young learner will progress toward reading maturity to the extent that he (1) recognizes at sight a growing stock of commonly recurring words, *have*, *mother*, *night*, etc., (2) learns to discriminate between confusing words such as *farther-faster*, *meat-meal*, *would-should*, *shoes-shows*, (3) develops skill in the sounding of regularly spelled items, *sit*, *ten*, (4) uses word building clues, e.g., *today*, as aids to the recognition of unfamiliar words; and (5) simultaneously learns to check inferences about words for the meaning the context demands, e.g., "Today is Wednesday."

A balanced program of reading instruction must include practice in all these skills. A safe rule is always to work with meaningful elements; then the children's attention is more likely to be caught and held during the intricate process of learning to read.

Sounding and "look and say" come together in the child's reading experience when he goes through the sentences in charts, the reader, or an easy story book, using a combination of phonic clues and context inference in guessing what the new words might be. In spelling, the children are encouraged to go as far as they can in sounding out the spelling of words they need to write, but they must be drilled to fix in mind the correct spelling of commonly used words that are erratically spelled, and they must be prepared to check the spelling of doubtful words in written work.

Further discussion of modern methods of teaching reading and spelling will be found in two books by the writer (4, 5).

The prevention of failure in reading does not lie solely in early drill in phonics or in the use of any special devices. The secret lies in the teacher's ability to work with young learners in terms of their abilities and insights, constantly adapting methods and materials to the children's aptitudes and limitations. Non-English-speaking children and those who use a pronounced dialect need to learn to speak standard English before they can be expected to make much progress in learning to read the language.

The commonest fault in teaching reading is failure to insure mastery before the child is permitted to advance to the next step in difficulty. Confusing items need to be cleared up to prevent an immature child

from getting on to a "plateau" where further progress is impossible.

Children everywhere, confronted with the complex task of learning to use and interpret the symbol system of the English language, can attain functional literacy by the end of the elementary school period, provided their teachers have full understanding of the nature of the learning tasks involved and of each child's equipment as a learner.

(Dr. Hildreth is Professor of Education at New York University. She was a Lecturer at the University of Istanbul, Turkey, in 1959-1960. She is the author of several works on the teaching of reading and spelling.)

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Vocabulary Control in Basal Reading Material

by ARTHUR I. GATES

THIS ARTICLE deals with two related problems, the course of development of ability to work out the recognition and meaning of "new" words and the control of "new" words in basal reading material.

Beginning several decades ago, efforts were made to control the introduction of new words in the primary grades in order to foster the development of word-recognition and word-meaning skills and to enable the pupils to read the "study" or basal material with reasonable fluency and comprehension. Control was also made more comprehensive by selecting "new" words more carefully, by introducing them at more uniform intervals, and reviewing them more frequently and systematically, by providing more careful analysis of their visual and auditory features, and in other ways. Control was gradually extended upward until within recent years most basal series provide, and many teachers now demand, some degree of vocabulary control, at least a list of "new" words through the fourth grade, and occasionally later.

Vocabulary control is one of a number of refinements of basal reading materials which have increased the costs of the books appreciably. Some of the controls may have been carried so far, moreover, as to be useless, if not disadvantageous.

The present study consists in comparing the ability of pupils to work out the recognition and meaning of

words previously introduced (and presumably studied) in a basal series with their ability to handle the "new" words introduced in later books in the same series. The first study, conducted in 1958, employed as subjects 310 pupils then near the end of the third grade. The pupils were members of twelve classes in New York City Public Schools 28 and 109 in the Bronx, 102 in Manhattan, and 127 in Brooklyn, which had used the Macmillan Readers as basal books from the beginning of grade one to the time of the tests. The test, called a "Reading Puzzle," consisted of 40 exercises, half of which were based on words introduced in the third-grade books, called the "old" words, and half of which were "new" for these children in the sense that they appear for the first time in the fourth-grade readers. The words selected were those which appeared at approximately regular intervals in the published lists of words in order of appearance in the third- (or earlier) and the fourth-grade manuals, respectively. Sample exercises follow.

In these illustrations, but not in the tests, the key word is italicized.

(3d grade) A *buffalo* is
an animal a tree a house a curtain
(4th grade) A *tortoise* is
an animal a tree a house a curtain
(3d grade) An *umbrella* is something
you take when it is
raining singing late friendly
(4th grade) *Medicine* is something you
take when you are
sick proud happy asleep

TABLE 1
SCORES OF 310 THIRD-GRADE PUPILS ON THIRD- AND FOURTH-GRADE WORDS

Number of third-grade words right	Number of fourth-grade words right	Difference in favor of third-grade words	Difference per 100	Number of pupils	Cumulative percentage of pupils
20	19.5	0.5	2.5	125	40
19	18.4	0.6	3.1	43	54
18	17.4	0.6	3.3	26	63
17	16.2	0.8	4.6	17	68
16	15.0	1.0	5.5	12	72
15	14.2	0.8	5.3	12	76
14	13.1	0.9	6.4	10	79
13	12.1	0.9	6.9	9	82
12	10.8	1.2	10.0	7	84
11	9.8	1.2	10.9	8	87
10	8.7	1.3	13.0	12	91
9	7.8	1.2	13.3	8	93
8	7.2	0.8	10.0	10	96
7	6.3	0.7	10.0	6	98
6	5.3	0.6	10.0	5	100

(3d grade) A *sailor* is a person who goes to the mountains a doctor the jungle sea

(4th grade) A *student* is a person who goes to war China a doctor school

(3d grade) A *candle* will give you food light rain music

(4th grade) A *cramp* may give you a reward pain lift friend

In constructing the test the writer undertook to match each third-grade word with a fourth-grade word of the same general type (noun, verb, etc.) as shown in the illustrations above, and to have the context and the incorrect choices similar in character and difficulty, and composed of words of lower frequency in the Thorndike word list than the key word.

The results are shown in Table 1. The most significant fact shown by this table is that these third-grade

pupils recognized the form and meaning of almost as many of the words first introduced in the fourth grade as they did of the words previously studied in the third grade. More than half of these third graders got substantially all of both the "old" third-grade words and the "new" fourth-grade words correct.* The average third-grade child scores only a half-word less on the fourth-grade than on the third-grade words. The ablest children handle correctly about 97 per cent as many "new" fourth-grade words as the "old" previously studied third-grade words. Even the children who got the lowest scores succeeded

*In such tests any child, however able, is likely to slip on one or two items. Hence a score of 19 is likely to be substantially as good as a perfect score of 20.

TABLE 2
SCORES OF 55 THIRD-GRADE PUPILS ON THIRD- AND FOURTH-GRADE WORDS*

Mean number right on third-grade words	Mean number right on fourth-grade words	Difference	Number of pupils	Cumulative percentage of pupils
20.0	20.0	0	20	36
19.5	19.4	0.1	7	49
19.0	18.8	0.2	7	62
17.0	16.5	0.5	7	75
12.1	12.0	0.1	7	87
7.2	6.8	0.4	7	100

*Entries represent the number of children getting perfect scores followed by the mean scores of the remaining pupils in groups of seven.

TABLE 3
SCORES OF 47 SECOND-GRADE PUPILS ON THIRD- AND FOURTH-GRADE WORDS*

Mean number right on third-grade words	Mean number right on fourth-grade words	Difference	Number of pupils	Cumulative percentage of pupils
20.0	20.0	0	6	13
17.3	17.1	0.2	7	28
13.7	13.2	0.5	7	43
10.6	10.0	0.6	7	57
9.2	8.5	0.7	7	72
6.8	6.1	0.8	7	87
5.3	4.4	0.9	6	100

*Entries represent the number of children getting perfect scores followed by the mean scores of the remaining pupils in groups of seven.

in recognizing 90 per cent as many "new" fourth-grade words as the "old" third-grade words.

A second study was conducted in 1959 to see how second-grade pupils would compare with third-grade youngsters on both third- and fourth-grade words. For this test we secured records of 55 pupils in third grade and 47 pupils in the second grade of P. S. 108, New York City. The four classes in this school had all used the

Macmillan Readers from the first grade.* The results are shown in Tables 2 and 3.

Although the third-grade pupils had not finished the third-grade readers, more than half of them got substantially perfect scores on both the third- and fourth-grade words. Here, as in the schools used in the

*No doubt more or less similar results would have been obtained had any one of several other basal series been used.

first study, there were no zero scores, and the pupils with the smallest number correct handled the fourth-grade "new" words almost as well as the third-grade words.

The second-grade children were, on the average, only two-thirds of the way through grade two, and none of the third- or fourth-grade words had as yet been encountered in their basal books. Six of these pupils got perfect scores on both lists, and three more, included in the group of seven who averaged 17.3 and 17.1, got 19 of one or both lists. Thus a fifth got substantially perfect scores on both third- and fourth-grade words. None of the 47 pupils got a zero score. The average (median) child in the second grade recognized and understood correctly about 60 per cent of the "new" third-grade, and about 57 per cent of the "new" fourth-grade, words, even when they were presented in multiple choice exercises, which are typically difficult for children of their age. The context clues in the tests (see samples above) are not only meager, consisting only of a synonym or an example of the word's use or effect, but if the child does not recognize the key word, he is confronted by three misleading clues along with the one correct one. The typical second- and third-grade books give far more helpful clues than do these tests. Had the children encountered these words in a fuller and less artificial context, such as in the basal readers, they would have shown a higher percentage of successes.

A pupil's ability to recognize words not as yet encountered in his basal reading is due to two major factors.

The average child by the end of grade three in a good school—such as the schools used in this study—has done extensive reading outside of his basal books. Work in the basal books should be regarded as similar to the formal "lesson" in dancing or golf—it should comprise but a fraction of the total activity. Thus the average child reads extensively a wide variety of other material with uncontrolled vocabulary during which he encounters and learns far more words than those presented in the basal book lessons. Some careless critics of education seem to have assumed that the child's reading is limited to the material in the basal readers, and that his reading vocabulary is consequently restricted to that of the basal books. This view is grotesque; it embodies a complete misunderstanding of the nature of the total reading program.

The child's success in learning words during his reading of any material depends upon his techniques of working out, by himself, the recognition, pronunciation, and meaning of the unfamiliar words in context. A number of different skills and insights—not merely one such as some particular type of phonetic procedure—are needed to handle most efficiently all the varieties of words and verbal contexts and patterns encountered in a child's reading. That the New York City pupils have learned to use such a variety of techniques efficiently is shown by the fact that they can handle words not previously encountered in their basal program. Children halfway through the second grade do this very well,

and of course they will be much better after they have had another year in school. As one of the teachers stated, "I think my pupils are adept at independent word recognition. They can usually figure out the word for themselves from structural, phonetic, context or other clues, some words by one approach and others by others. We, in fact, make it a practice to have each child figure each word out himself. None of the others is allowed to tell, at least not until the pupil has tried all the methods he knows." When these teachers discover a pupil who lacks an important technique, they teach it to him.

In Summary. Third-grade children of average ability in the thirteen classes from four different New York City public schools, as a result of the abilities they have acquired to work out the recognition and meaning of unfamiliar words and the experience they have had in reading by themselves, appear to have little more difficulty with the "new" words in the fourth-grade basal books which had not as yet been used in school than with words already encountered in earlier basal books in the series. For such children the listing and conventional controls of such "new" words in grade four seem to be a waste of

time in teaching and a needless expense in book production. Third-grade pupils have encountered most of the "new" fourth-grade words in reading other material, and if not, they can handle most or all of them when they encounter them in normal context. The fact that a word is "new" in the basal materials is an unreliable indication of its difficulty at fourth-grade level. This is true for the poorer students also, who during the second half of grade three have only slightly more difficulty with the "new" fourth-grade words, on the average, than they have with the "old" third-grade words. Indeed the top quarter of youngsters two-thirds through the second grade have so little trouble with both "new" fourth- and third-grade words as to make conventional vocabulary control of doubtful value to them. Too few data were available in this study, however, to test the value of conventional "new" word control in basal third-grade readers for pupils of relatively low abilities.

(Dr. Arthur Gates has been an Emeritus Professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, since 1956, and since that date has been Supervisor of Research in the Institute of Language Arts.)

1961-62 List of Research in Progress

Be sure to list your research in progress for the next annual compilation of research projects under the direction of members of IRA. Send a brief annotation of your current research to Dr. Agatha Townsend, R.D. 2, Kutztown, Pennsylvania.

A Study of the Effect of Individualized Reading on Children's Reading Test Scores

by MIRIAM S. ARONOW

THIS ARTICLE reports a study on the question: What differential effect, if any, does individualized reading have on the scores that children attain on standardized reading tests? The study was concerned with children's growth in reading as measured in standardized reading test grades, with particular reference to children in the fourth and the fifth grades. The study was conducted by the Bureau of Educational Research of the New York City public schools as an independent part of a larger bureau investigation of individualized reading.*

The criterion for growth used in the study was performance in city-wide testing surveys. The surveys of reading achievement and of intelligence regularly conducted with the city's pupils toward the end of the third grade, and the reading survey regularly conducted early in the sixth grade permitted an evaluation of reading gains made during the fourth and the fifth grades.

The study examined the reading gains, as measured by standardized reading tests, of children who were given individualized reading in their fourth and fifth grade classes, and of children who were not given individualized reading in their fourth and

fifth grade classes. At the time the study was initiated, the children involved were in the sixth grade. The investigation of reading growth began with the children's test results in the third grade. The groups were composed of children from a city-wide range of classrooms. The investigation was concerned with the gains in reading test grades made by these groups in the time between tests.

Procedures

A few weeks in advance of the sixth grade city-wide reading test of November 5, 1959, the bureau gathered the names and the third grade reading and intelligence test scores of children then in the sixth grade who had been given individualized reading in the fourth and fifth grades. From this number, a group was selected that had, in the third grade, been representative of the city's third grade of 1956-57 in its performance in the end-third-grade reading and intelligence surveys. The average reading test grade obtained by this individualized reading group in the sixth grade test was then compared with the average obtained by the children in the sixth grade in the city at large.

The hypothesis was that the individualized reading group selected obtained an average score in this test that was not significantly different

**A Practical Guide to Individualized Reading*. Publication No. 40, Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education, City of New York, October 1960.

from the average obtained by the city's sixth grade—in other words, that, in the time since the third grade reading test, the individualized reading group had gained about as much in reading test grades as the city's third grade had gained. The city's third grade of 1956-57 was considered a nonindividualized reading group. There were 351 pupils in the individualized reading group that was selected for the study.

Individualized reading and non-individualized reading were not defined. The study assumed: (1) that individualized reading was practiced in the fourth and the fifth grade classrooms of the children who were reported as having "had" individualized reading in these grades; (2) that the sixth grade children in the same schools who were not so reported had been in fourth and fifth grade classrooms in which individualized reading was not practiced.

Selection of Subjects

In order to assemble an individualized reading group of children from a city-wide range of classrooms, the aid of the reading consultants assigned to the various school districts by the Division of Elementary Schools was enlisted. Because of their frequent contacts with schools as reading consultants, these school personnel were judged best able to suggest schools in which there might be children who could be included in the individualized reading study group. Early in the fall of 1959, the reading consultants were asked to indicate all the schools in their respective school

districts in which there might have been fourth grade "individualized reading classes" in 1957-58, and also fifth grade "individualized reading classes" in 1958-59. In such schools, some of the children that were given individualized reading in their fourth grade classes might also have been given individualized reading the following year; individualized reading is undertaken in the city's schools on a voluntary basis.

The principals of the schools listed were asked to provide the names and the third grade reading and intelligence test scores of "all pupils in the sixth grade that had individualized reading in the fourth and/or fifth grade." The children with two years of individualized reading and whose survey test records were complete were subsequently identified as potential subjects.

From this group of (1,261) candidates for the study, a sample was drawn representative of the city's third grade of 1956-57 from the point of view of city-wide surveys. On the basis of the scores the pupil had received in the reading and the intelligence tests of March and April 1957, children were selected to produce a group equivalent to the city's third grade of 1956-57 in mean and in standard deviation of reading and intelligence test scores. Children were selected at random, from within the various levels of reading test grades, and from within the various levels of I.Q. scores, in proportions to conform with the proportions found in the city's third grade. Data in the summaries for these surveys served as the

basic reference data.* Tables I, II, III, and IV show that in the surveys that were conducted with the third grade of 1956-57 there was no significant difference at the .05 level between the individualized reading group selected and the city's third grade of 1956-57 with respect to average and dispersion of Otis I.Q. scores and Metropolitan reading test grades.

The intelligence test administered to third grade pupils on March 13, 1957 was the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test, Alpha, Short Form, Form A. (This test does not require reading.) The reading test administered on April 30, 1957, was the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Primary II Reading Test, Form S; only the scores for Test 1 (Reading) were noted. The .05 level was the level of confidence taken in a study at which an obtained difference in group results was considered large enough to indicate that a real, rather than a chance, difference existed. At the end of the third grade, the individualized reading group and the nonindividualized reading group were matched in academic aptitude and in reading achievement on statistical criteria applied to the results of standardized tests.

As sixth graders of 1959-60, the

351 children selected for the individualized reading group were in 102 classes in 52 schools. The schools were scattered throughout the city, in 22 of the 25 school districts. From the location of the 52 schools, and their test results, it seems likely that the children selected were a cross section of the city's school population in terms of socio-economic level. There were 176 boys and 175 girls in the individualized reading group. The Otis I.Q. scores obtained by these children in the third grade test ranged from 67 to 129; their Metropolitan reading test grades in the third grade ranged from 1.6 to 5.8+.

Findings

The children's scores in the sixth grade were obtained from the class record sheets regularly forwarded to the bureau following the administration and scoring of city-wide tests. The test used in the sixth grade was the Metropolitan Achievement Tests, Intermediate Reading Test, Form T; only the scores for Test 1 (Reading) were studied. The results are summarized in Table V.

As may be seen in this table, it was found that in the sixth grade the average score for the individualized reading group was significantly different from the average score for the city's sixth grade. The individualized reading group obtained an average reading test grade in the sixth grade that was higher than the average reading test grade obtained by the nonindividualized reading group. The difference between means was large enough to indicate the existence of a

*In survey summaries the standard deviation and the frequency distribution percentages of pupils' scores are derived from an approximate 12 per cent sample of the grade tested. This sample yields means for the city-grade that are the same as, or not significantly different from, the means computed from the total number of children tested. The use of this sample in the study accounts for the number of cases reported for the city group in the tables that follow.

TABLE I
MEAN OTIS SCORES OF CITY AND INDIVIDUAL READING GROUPS
IN THE THIRD GRADE

Group	N	Mean	S. D.	Standard Error of the Mean	Diff. in Means	S. E. Mean Diff.	t
City	6279	99.6	15.7	.20	1.10	.82	1.34*
IR	351	100.7	14.9	.80			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

TABLE II
STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF OTIS IQ SCORES OF CITY AND INDIVIDUALIZED
READING GROUPS IN THE THIRD GRADE

Group	N	S. D.	Standard Error of S.D.	Diff. in S. D.'s	S. E. of S. D. Diff.	t
City	6279	15.7	.14	.80	.58	1.38*
IR	351	14.9	.57			

*Not significant at the .05 level.

TABLE III
MEAN METROPOLITAN READING TEST GRADES OF CITY AND INDIVIDUALIZED
READING GROUPS IN THE THIRD GRADE

Group	N	Mean	S. D.	Standard Error of the Mean	Diff. in Means	S. E. Mean Diff.	t
City	6334	3.6	1.1	.01	.00	.06	—
IR	351	3.6	1.1	.06			

TABLE IV
STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF METROPOLITAN READING TEST GRADES OF CITY
AND INDIVIDUALIZED READING GROUPS IN THE THIRD GRADE

Group	N	S. D.	Standard Error of S. D.	Diff. in S. D.'s	S. E. of S. D. Diff.	t
City	6334	1.1	.01	.00	.04	—
IR	351	1.1	.04			

TABLE V
MEAN METROPOLITAN READING TEST GRADES OF CITY AND INDIVIDUALIZED
READING GROUPS IN THE SIXTH GRADE

Group	N	Mean	S. D.	Standard Error of the Mean	Diff. in Means	S. E. Mean Diff.	t
City	6816	6.1	2.1	.02	.6	.11	5.45*
I R	351	6.7	2.1	.11			

*Significant beyond the .01 level.

real, rather than a chance, difference at beyond the .01 level of confidence. In the two years and four school months that had elapsed since the third grade reading survey, the children in the individualized reading group, compared with a similar but nonindividualized reading group, had, on the average, gained more in reading test grades.

Discussion of the Results

It is probable that the difference found in this study in favor of the individualized reading group underestimated the differential effect of individualized reading in the fourth and the fifth grades. The individualized reading group and the nonindividualized reading group were matched as third grade groups of 1956-57. With the city group (the city's third grade), nonpromotion in the third, fourth, or fifth grade had cumulatively excluded from the city's sixth grade some of the poorer students who had in 1956-57 been in the third grade; at the time of the study, these children were in a grade below the sixth, not in the sixth grade.

This was not so for the individualized reading group of 1956-57. Composed of annually promoted children

only, the individualized reading group of 1956-57 had moved through the grades intact, arriving at the sixth grade with its full complement of poorer students. In comparing the individualized reading group in the sixth grade with the city group in the sixth grade, a less select group—in terms of school achievement—was compared with a group that was more select. From this point of view, the difference found in the sixth grade in favor of the individualized reading group yielded a conservative estimate of this group's larger average gain.

The reasons for the larger average gain made by the individualized reading group cannot be determined from this study. What the differences between individualized reading and nonindividualized reading are that might have been the causes for the results obtained in this study is a matter for further research.

The results obtained in this study may have been due to differences in materials, or to the greater motivation provided children permitted to select regular within-school reading materials, or to differences in procedures afforded or permitted teachers and pupils by the materials, or to the type of pupil-teacher weekly time schedule

arranged for teachers and pupils to identify and meet individual and group needs and purposes. The results obtained may have been due to possible variations in the amount of time devoted to reading instruction, or in amount of time devoted to reading practice, or to the novelty of the individualized reading approach for the children, the change-of-pace the individualized approach may have offered the teachers, the relationship between pupils and teacher, the qualities of the teachers and the supervisors involved. The differential effect obtained for the individualized study group may have been caused by some combination or interaction of such factors.

It is suggested that such was the case—that the positive differential found for the individualized reading group was due to a cluster of factors. By and large there may have been, in theory and in practice, a greater acceptance of, and attention to, differences among children in the individualized classes, and also a greater recognition in classroom procedures of reading and learning-to-read as an active thinking-feeling experience. Even if no significant difference in test results had appeared, an investigation of individualized reading by teachers of fourth and fifth grade pupils would be warranted, on the grounds of the contri-

butions of individualized reading to less tangible aspects of children's behavior as reported in the larger study referred to above.*

The problem of causation inherent in this *ex post facto* study limits the findings of the study in terms of their ready translation into teaching-learning theory. The findings show that research into the differences in classroom practices that produced the differential would be worthwhile in the improvement of reading programs.

Although individualized reading and nonindividualized reading were not defined in the study, the inference that can nevertheless validly be drawn from these data is that, given individualized reading as practiced during these years, New York City children in the fourth and the fifth grades tended to make gains on standardized reading tests that were larger than the gains other comparable children made with more usual reading programs. This may be so for New York City children in other grades as well. The study suggests hypotheses for further investigation.

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*A Practical Guide to Individualized Reading.

The Preparation and Responsibility of Secondary Teachers in the Field of Reading

by DOROTHY J. MCGINNIS

EVERY TEACHER is a teacher of reading" is a statement which some educators accept as a fact. If this is a valid conclusion, secondary teachers should assume responsibility for the teaching of reading. Are high school teachers providing this instruction? How do they and their students answer this question? How well prepared are secondary teachers to develop reading skills on the part of their students? These are some of the questions which stimulated the writer to attempt an evaluation of the preparation and responsibility of secondary teachers in the field of reading. In accomplishing this end, questionnaires were administered to a sampling of secondary teachers and to college freshmen who had recently graduated from high school.

Materials and Procedures

The materials sent to the teachers in this study were a letter and a questionnaire. The letter described the purpose of the investigation. The questionnaire covered information of a classificatory nature and fifteen questions to which the subjects were to respond. School directories for the year 1957 were obtained from 83 counties in the State of Michigan, and all the secondary teachers listed in these directories were numbered. There were 8,863. From this total 1,000 teachers were selected by means

of tables of random numbers (5), and the letter and questionnaire were mailed to the selected teachers. Of the 643 questionnaires which were returned, 570 were complete and were used in this investigation.

In order to obtain opinions of college freshmen regarding their instruction in reading, an inventory was prepared. This inventory, consisting of 16 questions, was administered to 1,029 second semester college freshmen enrolled at Western Michigan University.

Responses to each item on both questionnaires were tabulated. In order to determine the significance of the difference between the two percentages, the standard error of difference of the two percentages was found and t was calculated (3). Comments written on the questionnaire sent to teachers were classified and tabulated according to content.

Summary of Data

Responses of high school teachers. The highest degree held by 288 of the participating teachers (50 per cent) was a bachelor's degree. The master's degree was held by 275, or 48 per cent. At the extremes, fewer than 1 per cent held the doctorate and fewer than 1 per cent had no degree.

The 570 teachers received their training in 125 different colleges and

universities throughout the United States and one foreign country. These institutions of higher education are located in 31 states, with the greatest number located in Michigan.

The mean number of years of teaching experience was approximately twelve. Although the range of years spent in the classroom was wide, the greatest number of respondents (57 per cent) had less than ten years of experience in the teaching field. From this fact it may be inferred that the information possessed by the teachers had been recently acquired from the colleges and universities represented.

Each of the 570 teachers was asked to estimate what per cent of his students possessed reading skills essential to the work required by the high school instructor. Table 1 summarizes data from this question. It is apparent

that the average per cent of students reported as possessing essential reading skills is 67. It is obvious, then, that approximately one-third of the students being taught by these teachers did not read well enough to do the work expected in high school classes.

Data from the fifteen questions on the inventory are summarized in Table 2. It is apparent that approximately one-third of the teachers are expected to assume responsibility for providing instruction in reading. Eighty-two per cent of the teachers, while in college, were taught that reading skills can be improved throughout the active life of most individuals, but less than 10 per cent received any instruction on how to teach reading to high school students. Approximately three-fourths were taught to expect a great range of reading ability within a given grade, but only one-fifth were shown how to adjust reading materials to the reading levels of their students. Less than one-third of the teachers were shown how to teach their students to read a chapter effectively and well. Approximately two-thirds indicated that they were not taught how to show students to read in order to solve problems in their fields of specialization. Comments provided by the teachers in response to these items indicated that such instruction, when received, was provided in subject matter classes rather than education courses. Comments furnished by these teachers concerning the item on the relative importance of data and information

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF STUDENTS REPORTED
AS POSSESSING ESSENTIAL
READING SKILLS

Per Cent of Students	Number	Per Cent
100	6	1.1
90-99	83	14.6
80-89	88	15.4
70-79	112	19.6
60-69	86	15.1
50-59	112	19.6
40-49	23	4.0
30-39	31	5.4
20-29	14	2.5
10-19	13	2.3
0-9	2	.4
Total	570	100.0
Mean		67.1

TABLE 2
RESPONSES OF 570 SECONDARY TEACHERS

Question	Yes	No
1. Are you expected to assume responsibility for providing instruction in reading in your classes?	30.2	69.8*
2. Are your students prepared to do reference reading in the library?	54.0	46.0
3. Were you taught that reading skills can be improved throughout the active life of most individuals?	82.3	17.7*
4. While you were in college, did you receive any instruction on how to teach reading to high school students?	9.8	90.2*
5. Were you taught to expect a great range of reading ability within a given grade?	74.4	25.6*
6. As a part of your training in college, were you shown how to adjust reading materials to the reading levels of your students?	20.5	79.5*
7. Were you shown how to teach your students to read a chapter effectively?	31.9	68.1*
8. Were you shown various ways of teaching students to add words to their vocabularies?	44.4	55.6*
9. While you were in college were you taught how to teach students to concentrate?	25.6	74.4*
10. Were you taught how to develop on the part of students an awareness of problems in your subject matter field?	59.5	40.5*
11. When you were in college, did you learn how to teach students to read in order to solve problems in your field of specialization?	32.5	67.5*
12. Were you shown how to teach your students to critically evaluate a writer's bias and use of preconceived ideas?	30.9	69.1*
13. Were you shown how to teach your students to evaluate the organization and relative importance of facts, data, and information?	45.4	54.6
14. Should prospective secondary teachers be taught how to develop on the part of their students fundamental reading skills?	90.4	9.6*
15. Would your school benefit by a reading laboratory in which developmental work in reading is provided?	95.6	4.4*

*The difference between percentages is significant at the 1 per cent level.

indicate that some were taught these skills in their English classes. Approximately 96 per cent of the teachers said that their school would benefit by having a reading laboratory in which work in developmental reading is provided; in fact, teachers representing thirty school systems in the State of Michigan reported that such reading laboratories were already in operation in their schools. Some of these teachers pointed out that in their opinion a better job could be done if those in charge of this work could have more adequate training.

Comments of Teachers

There were 167 outspoken and frank comments voluntarily made by a number of high school teachers participating in this study. Forty-five of the respondents pointed out with emphasis that high school students need developmental reading. Twenty-eight stated that responsibility for reading instruction should not be assumed by high school teachers, whereas eight said that secondary teachers should assume this responsibility. Twelve said that high school teachers should receive instruction in how to teach reading. Five teachers were of the opinion that such instruction should emphasize practical techniques and not theory. Twenty-four individuals indicated that their knowledge of how to teach reading was obtained through experience and not through college courses. Twelve said that instruction regarding the teaching of reading was provided in graduate courses only, and seven said

that such instruction was obtained in courses other than those offered by departments of education. Fifteen participants stated that education courses are ineffective and a waste of time, whereas two people reported that education courses had provided superior instruction for the teaching of reading. Nine teachers emphasized the need for a reading laboratory in high school. It may be inferred from these spirited comments that secondary teachers are aware of the reading needs of their students, but are not unanimously in favor of assuming responsibility for instruction in this area. It is apparent from the vehement comments that there is a conflict in attitude toward courses offered by departments of education.

Responses of College Freshmen

Table 3 shows the responses of 1,029 college freshmen to sixteen questions. Over half, 61 per cent, reported that their high school teachers did not show them how to improve their ability and skill in reading, although 76 per cent stated that they were taught to do reference reading in the library. Among other responses: 90 per cent of the students said that their high school teachers required all students in the same class to read from the same text and do the same work. Sixty-eight per cent felt they were not taught how to read a chapter effectively, and 71 per cent were not taught how to concentrate upon a reading activity. Eighteen per cent reported that they read so slowly in high school that they had trouble completing all of their assignments,

TABLE 3
RESPONSES OF 1,029 COLLEGE FRESHMEN

Question	Per Cent Responding	
	Yes	No
1. Did your high school teachers show you how to improve your ability and skill in reading?	39	61*
2. Were you taught in high school to do reference reading in the library?	76	24*
3. Did your high school teachers require all students in the same class to read from the same text and do the same work?	90	10*
4. Were you taught how to read a chapter effectively?	32	68*
5. Were you taught a number of ways to increase your vocabularies?	55	45*
6. Were you shown how to improve your spelling?	55	45*
7. Were you taught how to concentrate upon your reading?	29	71*
8. Were you taught in your classes how to develop an awareness of problems?	34	66*
9. Were you taught how to read in order to solve problems?	41	59*
10. Were you shown how to critically evaluate a writer's bias and use of preconceived ideas?	30	70*
11. Were you taught how to evaluate the organization and relative importance of facts, data, and information?	45	55*
12. Were you taught to adjust your rate of reading to the difficulty of the material?	40	60*
13. Did you read so slowly in high school that you had trouble completing all of your assignments?	18	82*
14. Did you read, on your own, five or more books during your senior year in high school?	52	48
15. Do you think that a high school course in the improvement of reading would have been beneficial to you?	83	17*
16. Upon entering college were you reading well enough to do satisfactory college work?	70	30*

*The difference between percentages is significant at the 1 per cent level.

and 83 per cent stated that a high school course in the improvement of reading would have been beneficial to them, even though 70 per cent indicated that upon entering college they were reading well enough to do satisfactory academic work.

Inferences

1. There is need at the high school level for specific training in developmental reading. Such training should demonstrate various means of acquiring skills in chapter reading, vocabulary building, concentration, problem solving, and critical reading. A study of the responses of both high school graduates and their teachers indicates that a greater emphasis should be placed upon showing students at the secondary level how to make more effective use of their textbooks.

2. At the present time secondary teachers as a whole are not providing instruction in reading, nor are they adequately prepared to do so. If teacher training for developmental reading at the high school level is to be provided, it may not be necessary to create new courses with additional requirements for graduation; instead a reorganization of existing courses and a refocusing of emphasis may accomplish the desired end. The emphasis at the undergraduate level should be upon techniques and procedures for the teaching of reading as a work-study and thinking skill and not only upon theory and hypothetical situations.

3. If schools and departments of education are unable, for various

reasons, to provide training in developmental reading at the secondary level, then is it not possible that departments of English, communication, history, science, and mathematics should set forth and demonstrate reading procedures, and especially thinking skills, in their subject matter fields? Is it not possible that a teacher of chemistry can show his students how to teach critical thinking and reading in the field of chemistry better than a teacher of education? Answers to these questions should not be determined by opinions but by experimental evidence.

4. Departments of education and psychology should cooperate at the graduate level in the training of teachers who can be expected to plan, organize, and manage reading laboratories for junior and senior high school students. Even though such a laboratory is established, classroom teachers should assume responsibility for developmental reading in their subject matter fields.

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A Comparative Study of Reading Growth from Grades Two to Seven

by KATHRYN MOHR McELROY

WHEN ALL FACTORS point to the probability of steady growth in reading achievement, what happens to prevent it? Why should a child who has all the prescribed positive elements in his history seem to bog down in third or fourth grade? In and out of the myriad tasks comprising the normal day of the Reading Consultant, these niggling questions kept popping in and out of my thoughts. There seemed only one thing to do. Try to determine whether or not statistics would show that there actually *was* a marking-time period during the middle grades when the child broke his consistent progress by apparently reaching and resting on a plateau. To disprove or substantiate this idea, a study was begun of the reading and I.Q. test scores of junior high school students who were now in the seventh and eighth grade groups, and who had been in our school system since second grade or earlier. Even though we recognized our sampling would be small, due to a 66 per cent increase in junior high school enrollment in the last three years, we felt certain it would serve to direct our investigation. The procedure for this research began with the extracting from each seventh and eighth grade home room the cumulative records of these pupils. The test scores from kindergarten (in some cases) to the most recently administered tests,

which involved reading and intelligence, were recorded.

It would seem valuable to understand the type of community from which our pupils come. Arlington Heights is an upper middle-class residential suburban town of a population of about thirty thousand. The parents are well-educated and, in many instances, college graduates. A large percentage of the fathers are junior executives, commuting to nearby Chicago; while the mothers are for the most part at home with the children. It is important to realize that these families do a very fine job of giving an excellent background for the productive learning that we might expect from our pupils. So, with this picture of the calibre of our school population, we accept the correlation with an average I.Q. score which is seventeen points above the national norm. We are, in short, working with a select group, so we are concerned when performance falls even a fraction below the anticipated.

To extend the profile of our reading program in the Arlington Heights Elementary Schools, it is important to know our philosophy. We are all concerned with a strong developmental reading program as opposed to remedial effort. The pre-school groups are a definite part of our complete accord with the theory that reading readiness is a guided and nurtured result of

planned activities within the kindergarten, and is continued on through each successive step in the learning pattern. Experiences are carefully thought out to provide the five-year old with a growing awareness of, and skill in, oral language, auditory acuity, and visual discrimination. Each teacher is helped in becoming increasingly appreciative of individual differences and growth patterns, so that as the child proceeds from level to level in ability, he is carried on at his own pace. For the child who encounters a hurdle in an otherwise smooth progression of skills, there is a studied attempt to uncover the cause and remedy it right then, and not wait until a serious remedial case develops with harassing emotional entanglements. With this understanding of how the teaching of reading is treated in our schools, you can better appreciate our attitude of trying to ferret out any deviation from a steady climb in achievement.

The test scores available for study were those from tests given annually to all pupils at certain grade levels in our schools: (a) Metropolitan Readiness Test—Kindergarten; (b) California Mental Maturity Test—Grades one, four, and six; (c) California Achievement Test—Grades three, five, seven, and eight. Any additional results from informal reading tests given in the classroom by the teacher, and diagnostic tests administered by the reading consultant or remedial reading teacher in summer school were scrutinized, but not used in the graphs. These cases, incidentally, were actually very few.

Graphs were made to enable us to see more easily where and how the growth pattern would be revealed. Separate graphs were made for both the seventh and eighth grade sections. Comparative studies were then made. Median scores, scores showing vocabulary growth, comprehension growth, and total reading growth were used to help us determine exactly where there was the most progress and where there seemed to be least.

Observations

Certain observations were made from studying these graphs.

1. There appeared to be an almost identical growth pattern in both vocabulary and comprehension from second grade to the present grade level.

2. For the most part *comprehension scores were higher than vocabulary scores.*

3. There was an identical growth pattern present in both the seventh and eighth grade groups studied.

4. *There appeared to be a comparable lack of growth between the third and fourth grades, and fourth and fifth grades, as contrasted with other grade areas.*

5. Between fifth and sixth grade there was an acceleration which brought the test scores up to the expected standard.

6. The anticipated achievement (as indicated by the I.Q. scores) which would suggest continued growth was not present in the test results at the beginning of fourth grade—as compared with the beginning of fifth grade.

7. At every grade there seemed to be almost a grade level difference between the lower and median quartile and the median and upper quartile.

8. At least three obvious levels of ability exist in each grade group.

9. National grade norms should be ignored in comparing test results because the anticipated achievement is the starting point, not the norms. In only three isolated cases did the lower quartile fall below the national norm.

10. The pupils with whom we were working were one and a half to two years above the national norm in mental age.

Hypotheses

1. A careful evaluation of the third and fourth grade reading programs is indicated to identify the specific area which lacks impetus for building vocabulary, which is a half grade below comprehension.

2. There is an *apparent need for grouping at each grade level* to meet the needs of the individual pupil and the obvious grade level differences between the lower and median quartile and the median and upper quartile.

3. There is an apparent need for a re-examination of *more challenging reading materials at the third and fourth grades*—especially for the upper quartile groups.

4. The social studies and language arts materials should be re-evaluated on the basis of the evident need for more challenging work in comprehension and vocabulary. The study of this area has been started.

5. The learning plateau which had

been surmised became an actual fact on these graphs. *The two school years of third grade and fourth grade seemed to be the marking-time period in the otherwise continual reading growth pattern.*

CONCLUSIONS—Not content to wait for materials to be published, we are now making plans to better meet our pupil needs. It is obvious that our children have an above average social maturity as regards broad factual background. The reading tastes are more sophisticated than are satisfied by the general topics for textbook and tradebook stories. A simple vocabulary coupled with high interest must be present for pupil motivation. The great majority of the nation's third and fourth graders are evidently content and stimulated by a dog story, for instance, as may be assumed by the number of such stories offered by textbooks. However, our boys and girls seek—but seldom find—books dealing with such subject matter as astronomy, prehistoric plant and animal life, and mystery plots—tastes generally accorded to older children.

These are our plans:

1. Reading workshops in the early fall will give teachers specific suggestions to include in their classroom activities. Varied reading media will be offered, such as newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and film strips. Practical use will be made of original stories composed by children, which will be typed and shared with other classrooms. Teachers may write plays or stories for their children. There will be exhibits of teaching devices which

may be made by the pupil for his personal study, as in the case of the simple hand-operated tachistoscope.

2. The basic text will be used to guide the continued purposeful growth in skills.

3. Extended reading experiences will include particular interest pursuits in science or social studies.

4. Our existent program of individualized reading will be developed to further meet each child's needs, through the cooperative efforts of the school librarian, consultant, teacher, and pupil.

5. Supplementary texts will continue to be available to all classrooms.

6. Periodic meetings for teachers will make possible the discussing of current activities, the evaluating of the effectiveness of this program, the sharing of ideas, and the gaining of new insight into the improvement of instruction designed to keep pupils working up to capacity.

7. Our policy of ability grouping within the classroom to accommodate individual rates and potentials will be continued.

The test scores at the close of the school year will reveal the reading progress made by our middle graders. Teacher judgment concerning attitude, motivation, and performance of pupils will be recorded. Then we will re-evaluate and re-plan for a consistent progressive growth pattern in reading. We will carry on this research in another junior high school so that with more pupils involved, the more convincing our observations, hypotheses, and conclusions can become.

(Kathryn Mohr McElroy has recently been appointed to the principalship of a new elementary school in Arlington Heights, Illinois, where she has been the Reading Consultant the past two years.)

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(Continued from Page 97)

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The Role of Reading Guidance in the Total Guidance Program of the Elementary School

by CHASE DANE

READING GUIDANCE has always been popular with librarians. In fact, many librarians consider it the most interesting and professional part of their work. They have written books and articles explaining what it is. They have suggested how it can play a part in the guidance program in the high school. However, in spite of all their efforts reading guidance has remained pretty much a librarian's tool. It has never really found its way into the elementary school guidance program.

What is reading guidance? In library science we often speak of "reading guidance," which may be defined as finding the right book for the right reader at the right time. This of course is an over simplification of a complex task. It assumes that there is a "right" book and a "right" time. In the elementary school library, reading guidance means helping the pupil select a book he can read which will meet his needs or answer his questions or help him solve his problems.

Martinson and Smullenburg, in their *Guidance in Elementary Schools*, define guidance as "a planned program involving those materials and procedures that deal specifically with the social and emotional welfare of the pupils" (8). If we accept this definition, it is clear that books for children and young people and reading guidance can have a def-

inite place in the guidance program.

Reading guidance can probably play a more vital part in the total guidance program of the elementary school when it is used: (1) in specific situations, (2) to meet pupil needs, (3) to aid pupils in mastering the developmental tasks.

Specific Situations

The suggestion that reading guidance could be used in specific situations is not a new one. Spache has suggested that "even before the invention of the book as we know it, teachers used reading materials to help individuals solve their personal adjustment problems" (11). It has frequently been said that the primary purpose of early American readers seemed to be the development of certain moral traits. The *New England Primer*, with its "in Adam's fall we sinned all," may be cited as an example of this type of material. It has been estimated that the primer sold more than five million copies, thus spreading its moral precepts throughout the land.

The use of reading guidance in specific situations is closely related to bibliotherapy, or treatment through books. Bibliotherapy has been defined as "a process of dynamic interaction between the personality of the reader and literature" (11). The exact difference between reading guidance

and bibliotherapy is difficult to state. They are both concerned with personality change through reading, and they both assume that books can have an effect on the reader. However, bibliotherapy is often thought of as being a much narrower or more specialized aspect of reading guidance. Up to the present time, much more has been done with bibliotherapy with adults than with children or young people. Bibliotherapy has been used with psychotic prisoners in a penitentiary, with patients in the alcoholic ward of a hospital, and with psychotic patients in a mental institution.

Many values have been claimed for bibliotherapy. Among them may be mentioned the opportunity to learn to know one's self better, to understand human behavior, and to find interests outside the self. Thus it may enable the reader to recognize that he is not the first to meet and solve his problem.

Here we will use the term reading guidance rather than bibliotherapy. There are many specific situations in which reading guidance can be used in the elementary school. A number of them have been reported in library periodicals. For example, Katherine A. Pirie has described how she read a number of selections to her first grade class and recorded the effect which they had on the children. She found that the children identified with the characters in the selections who helped them find solutions to their problems (11).

School psychologists have experimented with other situations in which reading guidance could be used, or

have suggested situations in which it might be helpful. It is not necessary to indicate all of these here, but it may be worthwhile to mention briefly a few of the more promising. One school psychologist, for example, has suggested that books could be used to help children learn to accept adult authority, other than that of the parents, outside the home. Young children just starting to school often find it hard to learn that other adults may have authority over them in certain situations. Of course, in a situation like this the teacher or psychologist would have to read the story to the children, since they would not yet have learned how to read. However, this simply serves to emphasize another point, which is that reading guidance can be used with very young children who have not learned to read.

The important thing here is to select material which will introduce children to the idea of adult authority outside the home. Numerous annotated lists of books for children have been compiled to help teachers who are faced with this sort of problem. Clara Kircher's *Character Formation Through Books* and *Adventuring with Books* by the National Council of Teachers of English are two excellent examples of such lists.

Books can be used to help children understand that their feelings of anger and shame are perfectly natural, that almost everyone has them at one time or another. With the aid of the school librarian, a teacher could help a child select a book that would show him that

other children have similar feelings. Through reading he would gain insight into his own problem, and perhaps discover ways of solving it. A story about a child who feels sad when his pet turtle dies could show that such a feeling is not necessarily shameful.

There are a number of annotated book lists which have been prepared for this purpose. Two of the best known are Margaret Heaton's *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* and Mate Hunt's *Values Resource Guide*, an annotated list for the elementary school teacher (6, 7). Lenrow's *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction*, although old, is still useful. Roos' *Patterns in Reading* and Walker's *Book Bait* are examples of lists prepared by librarians and intended for use with reading guidance.

Still another use of books in a specific situation has to do with fantasy. Adults often have the feeling that all fantasy is bad. Parents are disturbed when they find their children reading science fiction or a book like the *Wizard of Oz*. Reading fantasy need not be bad, however, and can be very good. Fantasy is harmful only when it is mistaken for reality. Fantasy has an important part in our lives. Children need to read for fantasy just as they sometimes need to read for escape or relaxation or for fun. There are many good books to meet this need, such as Thurber's *The Wonderful O*.

The possibility of using reading guidance with small groups has already been referred to briefly. There are numerous situations in which

books can be used with a small group. A short description of just one situation will show how this can be done. The teacher or guidance person reads a story to a group of children but stops just short of the end of the story. He then asks the children to tell how they think the story ended. How they think the story will end can be very revealing. In making up their ending to the story the children often tell the observer more about themselves, of course, than they do about the story. This device can be used with one child as well as with a group of children. It can also be used with primary grade children who can't read, or with an upper grade child who is a poor reader. The clues which the guidance person picks up in this way can be used in helping him solve the child's problem.

A final way in which books can be used in the guidance program in the elementary school takes advantage of them as topics of conversation. Here the school psychologist may recommend a book to a child, a book which has been carefully selected with the help of the school librarian, and which is related to the child's problem. After the child has finished the book the psychologist discusses it with him, and uses it as an opening to get the child to talk about his own problem. Here the book is used as a springboard for discussion of the child's own problem.

These are a few of the specific situations in which books might play a part in the total guidance program. As can be seen, in these situations reading guidance comes very close to

bibliotherapy. This is probably because the situations discussed here have all been suggested by school psychologists. These are not the only situations in which reading guidance could be used in the elementary school, of course. Many others will readily come to mind, depending on the school situation and the experience of the guidance person or school psychologist.

Meeting Pupil Needs

Reading guidance can probably play its most important role in the elementary school guidance program when it is used to meet the needs of pupils. More attention has been given to this aspect of reading guidance than any other. For this reason only a brief review of the problem will be given here.

What are the needs of pupils? And what are the needs of pupils which could be met through the help of books? No two writers seem to agree exactly on what these needs are. Yet there are certain needs which are mentioned over and over again (10). Martinson and Smullenburg, for example, note that "the exceptional child has the same needs as other children—the need for belonging, the need for success, the need for affection, the need for social approval, the need for independence—to name but a few of those commonly listed" (8). In discussing the role of the librarian in the secondary school guidance program, Ida Minkle has called attention to the ten imperative needs of high school students which are listed in the 1947 issue of the *Bulletin of the*

National Association of Secondary School Principals. She selected five of these which the high school librarian could meet: (1) the need for civic responsibility and understanding, (2) the need for communicating with others, (3) the need for cultural appreciations, (4) the need for satisfactory personal-social relationships, (5) the need for vocational understanding (9).

Alice and Lester Crow, in *An Introduction to Guidance*, have pointed out that the basic needs of elementary school children do not differ too much from those of younger children and adolescents (3). As they say, these needs have been listed variously by educators who work with children of this age. Borrowing from the Los Angeles City School System, they list seven basic needs of growing children. These include such needs as assurance that they belong, that they are wanted in their homes and neighborhoods and classrooms; friends, both child and adult; and play time which they can enjoy (3). Paul Burns, in an article on "Reading Guidance for Personality Adjustments," wrote that "the library can help to meet many personal needs of pupils thru book content. Often it can provide guidance for the child who needs a greater understanding of himself or of others" (2).

One of the earliest lists of pupil needs was the one published by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918. This list, which later became famous as the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, includes such needs as

health, command of the fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, and worthy use of leisure time. In 1944 the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association published its list of "Ten Imperative Needs of Youth." This is the list referred to by Minkle. Many of these needs were similar to the seven cardinal principles, and included such needs as that of developing salable skills, developing good health and physical fitness, understanding the duties of citizenship, understanding the significance of the family, and appreciating beauty.

Altogether, a number of lists of pupil needs have been published so far. From the point of view of reading guidance, however, the most satisfactory list is the one compiled by Geneva Hanna and Mariana McAllister, and included in their *Books, Young People, and Reading Guidance* (4). Their list is a composite of previous lists, and includes eleven needs which they believe are basic in children and young people. Among these are the need to be like others, the need for emotional independence from adults, the need for wholesome family relationships, and the need to learn adult roles.

The advantage of the Hanna-McAllister list lies in the fact that it is more than just a list of pupil needs. First they explain what the need is, and how it is related to today's children and young people. Then they discuss books which can be used to meet these needs. In considering the need to understand the physical

world, for example, they stress the point that young people need to understand and learn how to control the physical world and the universe, whenever this is possible. Young people, they say, want to know—How does jet propulsion work? What are atoms? How does TV work? Young people can find the answers to these questions in books, and Hanna and McAllister recommend such works as Nelson Beller's *Experiments with Atomics*, Martin Caidin's *Vanguard!* and Jeanne Bendick's *Television Works Like This*. Reference books, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, and handbooks, can also be used to help young people learn about the physical world.

Mastering the Developmental Tasks

Robert Havighurst, of the University of Chicago, introduced the concept of developmental tasks to educators in 1947. Later, in *Human Development and Education* (5), he greatly expanded his original idea. To begin with, he divided human development into four periods: (1) infancy and early childhood, (2) middle childhood, (3) adolescence, (4) adulthood and old age. For our purpose the period of middle childhood is the most important one; it covers the period from about six to twelve years of age. This period, according to Havighurst, is characterized by three great outward pushes. First, the child is thrust out of the home and into the peer group. Second, he is thrust into the world of games and work requiring neuro-

muscular skills. Third, he is thrust into the world of adult concepts—logic, symbolism, and communication. The nine developmental tasks of middle childhood grow out of these three stages in the growth of children. A few tasks can be mentioned to show how they may be related to reading guidance.

Learning physical skills for ordinary games. At first it would appear that books could not play a part in helping children master this task. However, children who are too timid to participate in some games, such as softball or field hockey, may gain reassurance from reading a book on how to play the game. A simple book on basketball may give a child the confidence he needs, and convince him that he can play as well as the next one.

Learning to get along with age-mates. This is similar to the need for peer status or the need to be like others, which Hanna and McAllister have commented on. This developmental task includes learning to make friends and how to get along with enemies, and to develop a social personality. Many books mirroring this problem have been written for children and young people, such as Mary Stolz's *In a Mirror*.

Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role. Career stories can be used to meet this need. The number of stories about dancers, nurses, and secretaries for girls is large. Career stories for boys are not so plentiful but there are some, such as Henry Felson's *Davey Logan, Intern* and Stephen Meader's *Bulldozer*.

Developing concepts necessary for everyday living. This task includes such needs as that for beauty, for a philosophy of life, and for understanding the physical world. The task is to acquire a store of concepts sufficient for thinking effectively about ordinary occupational, civic, and social matters.

Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values. The nature of this task is to develop an inner moral control, respect for moral rules, and the beginning of a rational scale of values. This task is also related to the need for a philosophy of life, cited by Hanna and McAllister.

Achieving personal independence. The nature of this task is to become "an autonomous person, able to make plans and to act in the present and immediate future independently of one's parents and other adults."

Enough has been said to show that there is a great deal of similarity between Havighurst's developmental tasks and the basic needs of children which have been noted by so many other educators. However, there is a difference between the developmental tasks and the basic needs, and their use in reading guidance. The developmental tasks are more general, and have a wider application. The problem in reading guidance is to help children select books which will enable them to master the developmental tasks. Several annotated book lists have been prepared for just this purpose, most notably Heaton's *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* (6).

Besides book lists there have been

several other attempts to relate reading guidance to the developmental tasks. The most interesting of these was an experiment conducted by Alice Brooks and Frances Henne at the Children's Book Center at the University of Chicago. A group of school and children's librarians sought to isolate the developmental values in books. They defined a developmental value as "an element in a book which serves as an instrument of communication and supplies vicariously a wealth of experience that may aid a reader in his choice of modes of behavior" (1). They distinguished between a developmental task, which applies to a reader, and a developmental value, which applies to a book.

Brooks and Henne pointed out that the idea of using books to shape and influence the behavior of a child is not new. What was new in their approach to the problem was their attempt to identify developmental values in specific books. They took the following steps in their effort to determine if books actually do have such values. First, they selected a list of one hundred books which seemed to reflect the current patterns of social experiences, interpersonal relations, and the problems of childhood and youth. To make sure that the list included books which were popular with children they consulted a number of librarians. On the basis of their replies they reduced the list to fifty books.

The next step was to write to the authors of these books to ask them if they intended, when writing their books, to convey the values for which

the books had been selected. At the same time they asked university students enrolled in children's literature courses to read the books to discover what values they found in them. They also submitted the books to a number of elementary school children for their opinion. They found that there was agreement among the authors, the university students, and the children regarding the developmental values in the books.

The final step involved a search for evidence that books do affect the development and behavior of children. To accomplish this they used such tools as the focused interview, a story projective technique, and a sociometric technique to show the reader's identification with the characters in a book.

From this study Brooks and Henne drew several conclusions. First, the developmental values in books will not produce dynamic changes in a child. However, they found that the developmental values contributed to personality growth and development. Just as a host of everyday experiences gradually lead to personality changes, so can the developmental values gradually play a part in character formation. Second, to be effective the values in books must be suited to the developmental level of the reader. That is, a child who is not yet ready for a particular developmental task will not benefit from reading a book with a developmental value related to that task. Just as there is reading readiness, so there would seem to be a kind of task readiness. Third, as would be expected, children of differ-

ent socio-economic levels and cultural groups respond differently to the same books. This is another way of saying that what a reader gets out of a book depends on what he brings to it. And finally, they found that children may all respond to the same value in a book, but the responses may vary from individual to individual depending on what his needs and receptivity are.

(The author is District Librarian in the Santa Monica Unified School District, Los Angeles, California.)

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A Case of Severe Dyslexia with Aphasic-like Symptoms

by JEANNETTE JANSKY

THE FOLLOWING is a case report of Dick, who is now twelve and one-half years old. Therapy for his severe dyslexia will be terminated in a few weeks.

Dick was originally referred for speech evaluation when he was six years old. The following facts were elicited at that time:

Family history showed difficulty in the language area on both sides. The maternal grandfather's speech was hesitating and somewhat disorganized. The mother's speech was severely blocked during adolescence. A paternal uncle and nephew were very poor spellers, as was Dick's older brother, who stuttered for a while and had trouble telling a story. Dick's older sister also had occasional speech blocks.

Motor development was not deviating, but Dick's motor speech patterns had always been poor. They improved somewhat by the time he was four or five, but there had been comparatively little progress since.

During the examination, the boy's coordination of large muscle groups was found to be excellent, and, indeed, he had gained considerable prestige among peers because of his facility in sports. However, fine coordination, as manifested in graphic activities, was poor.

Laterality was not firmly established, though the boy preferred his right hand.

His Goodenough Draw-A-Man and Bender Gestalt productions showed striking immaturity in terms of spatial organization, and visuo-motor control was very poor. Both drawings were primitive.

Auditory memory span was four nonsense syllables and hence adequate for his age.

Dick had a marked interdental lisp, and he also occasionally missed other sounds. The intelligibility of his speech fluctuated as a function of complexity of sentence structure. When he was involved in a complicated story, rate increased, output was poorly structuralized, and speech became indistinct. His story telling suffered, thus, both in terms of organization and delivery.

It was noted that he had a marked difficulty in word-finding and lacked simple concepts like "stove." Verbal definitions were concrete, being more descriptive than functional.

As a result of an intelligence evaluation, the psychologist felt that Dick's intelligence was probably superior, though there was marked scatter in subtest scores.

In view of the appearance of so many positive signs, there was little question that Dick suffered from a specific language disability. The parents were warned that on the basis of language evaluation it was highly likely the boy would find reading difficult, and it was suggested that

they watch his progress in that area closely. However, since Dick did not suffer socially on account of his mild speech problem, it was suggested he not come for speech therapy.

Exactly a year later Dick came back to the office in trouble over his reading. First grade reading instruction had not made the slightest impression on Dick, and at the end of a full year he could not read a single word and could name only the letter *A*.

Dick started work on his reading in November of 1955. He came only three times a week, although it would have been desirable for him to come more often. The number of periods was increased to four as soon as possible.

Dick proved to be ambitious and showed a capacity for hard work, but even so, it took him three painful months to learn the names of the letters of the alphabet. It was here that his anomia—trouble with naming—was first clearly demonstrated. While he remembered letter shapes and could write "Dick," he simply could not remember the names of the letters. Like an aphasic, he learned letter names mainly by oft-repeated descriptive phrases, such as "*h* is the chair shape." He made up the clues himself and many of them were highly personalized.

The sound equivalents for vowels were hard for him to learn, since he forgot the names of key pictures illustrating the sound. For example, he drew a picture of an orange and colored it to remind him of the short *o* sound, but Dick had difficulty

remembering even so concrete a stimulus. He finally managed by remembering the shape the lips made when producing the sound.

At the age of seven he still could not always recall color names; he did not know the names of the days of the week. He knew neither the names of the months, nor the date of his own birthday, despite repeated coaching. He did not know that he lived in New York State. He confused the meal names and was not sure if breakfast came in the morning or evening. He had no word concepts for "tomorrow" or "yesterday." His anomia was the source of considerable embarrassment in his contacts with other people.

Time as a framework meant little to Dick. This is understandable when one realizes he had no word concepts for demarking its passage. He was entirely dependent on his nurse to get him on time to his various appointments. He did not respond appropriately to being told something would happen in several days or in several hours. Both were extremely vague references to the future.

Temporal sequences were difficult for the boy. Since Dick confused the beginning and the end of the word when he heard it, he reversed the order of letters. One might ask him what letter *bat* begins with and get the answer "*t*".

As to spatial disturbance: one could not help feeling that physiologically Dick lacked a clear feeling of separation from the surrounding space. He melted, so to speak, into the couch in the waiting room. While

most children like a large playroom, he preferred to work in a small room because, as he explained it, "I feel lost in the playroom—this one is not so loose." Dick lost his way easily.

Especially impressive was the way spatial difficulties interfered with the boy's learning in terms of visual verbal symbols. One got the feeling that for him the letters *b-p*, *d-q*, *m-w*, and *n-u* pivoted perversely. He looked at *big* and *pig* and insisted they were just the same. When he was told to start sounding at the beginning, not the end of the word, he repeatedly observed, as he had done during oral spelling, that the beginning could just as easily be the end. It is apparent that for the boy, left to right progression was still an arbitrary matter, despite months of coaching. Dick found it hard to hold to the line when reading. One was impressed by the excessive mobility and plasticity individual letters and words as a whole had for him. In helping Dick it felt exactly as if one were up against trying to embed something permanently in very wet sand.

Even when words finally became familiar, this was true only for the situation in which the words were originally learned. For example, Dick was able to recognize a word printed on a yellow sight card, but not the same word when printed on a white one, or when the print varied. This inability to transfer a Gestalt from one situation to another—to generalize—is a mark of concreteness, and in this sense Dick was concrete.

He also had trouble recognizing the word when it was embedded in a

page. This was a figure-background problem more than anything else.

Electroencephalographic and neurologic findings were negative, but we regard Dick's pervasive difficulties as being in the nature of an aphasic disturbance.

The aim in therapy for this plastic youngster was to establish numerous signposts, to fix a more stable frame of reference. In the areas of both reading and spelling he was given techniques for analyzing large configurations into smaller ones and synthesizing small configurations into larger ones. It was a matter of constant re-enforcement, and required endless patience on Dick's part. In general, the phonic method was used, though at first he had great difficulty since his analytic and synthetic abilities were so poor. It was when these "clicked" that Dick began to make more rapid strides.

When we first knew him, Dick was repeating the first grade. He has been able, because of the school's patience and flexibility, to remain with his group each year and is now finishing sixth grade. He has until this year lagged considerably behind the group in most academic areas. However, driven by his need to keep up with the class, Dick's study skills have improved—each year he has done more of his own home work, and this past spring he had no help at all.

On recent Independent School Tests (for youngsters in private schools) Dick rated Grade 8 in Reading Comprehension and middle of Grade 5 in Spelling and Speed of Reading. Dick now enjoys reading,

and although his spelling still is primitive, though he reads rather slowly, and though there are residuals of his language deficit in a number of areas, we feel that in the coming year Dick will be ready for a regular tutor who can help him close the gaps in a number of academic areas.

Despite the fact that through success Dick has gained in self-confidence, one can see in his defensiveness that he still has many fundamental doubts as to his competence. We are referring him to a psychological counsellor in the hope that he will get some insight into, among other things, his own strength and intelligence.

In observing and working with Dick during the past six years, it has been fascinating to watch the interdependence in terms of progress of development and remediation. This case provides some information about the kind of gains which can be expected under optimum circumstances, from an intelligent youngster with a severe and pervasive language deficit.

(Jeannette Jansky has been working some time in the field of speech correction. She was formerly assistant at the Language Disorder Clinic, Columbia Presbyterian Medical Center.)

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Auditory Discrimination in the Learning Difficulties of Children with Neurological Disabilities

by MARY M. ZOEPFEL

THE ASSESSMENT of auditory discrimination in children with neurological disabilities has become a problem of great interest to teachers and school psychologists. Even though research has been limited in this field, classroom teachers are faced with learning difficulties encountered by these children. Often the neurological disorder is subtle, and the auditory handicap is not detectable under school screening tests.

It is true that teachers do not have the responsibility for the diagnosis of neurologically disabled children and, yet, the teacher initiates such an examination through the school psychologist. Therefore, it seems essential that teachers have some understanding of the complexities in the diagnosis. The following criteria are usually used in determining the nature, extent, and psychological resultant of neurological disabilities (brain-injury) (7).

1. A developmental history of the child that shows the possibility of brain damage by deprivation of oxygen either before or shortly after birth, by high fevers and other difficulties accompanying certain diseases in childhood such as meningitis, and by difficult and complicated deliveries at birth. Very often the attending physician is in the best position to note whether such conditions have occurred, or whether the possibilities of brain injury are present in the child's prenatal or postnatal history.

2. Neurological signs in the child's behavior must be evaluated most competently by a neurologist.

3. An electroencephalogram, which, it is well to note, has definite limitations in the diagnosis of brain injury. Some electroencephalographers report pathological findings in children with behavior disorders who do not belong in the brain-injured group. Electroencephalograms also fail to record brain injuries when the injuries are in areas of the brain below the cortex.

4. A psychological evaluation in which the intellectual pattern of the child can be noted and the psychological profile is found to be similar to other types of children with brain injury. The examiner also notes the disturbances in the perceptual and conceptual areas.

5. The elimination of all other possible major causes of the child's behavior, such as emotional or situational factors.

Some understanding of the Bender Gestalt Test (1) is also valuable. This test is aimed at measuring the response of an individual to visual "Gestalten" and spatial relationships. The reproduction of certain types of designs are related to the sequence of maturational development. This maturational development in neurologically disabled children is measured by the Bender Gestalt through behavior patterns as follows:

1. *Biological maturity*—measured by the accuracy the child shows in his visual perception and in his motor coordination, and is scored by a qualitative evaluation of each drawn design.

2. *The ego maturity*—evaluated in terms of the global arrangement of all the figures on the sheet of paper. Is the organization of the figures planned, meaningful, and realistic? How is the space used? Are the figures cramped? Do they tend to run off on the edges?

3. *Social maturity*—how does the child relate to you in the examination? Is he

overdependent? Is he self-critical? Does he tend to take the task readily?

Wortis (11) suggests that the behavior of brain-injured or neurologically disabled children is dependent on four variables: (1) the anatomical equipment and configuration of the brain, (2) the settled stereotype of learned behavior (personality), (3) the actual situation at the point of observation, and (4) the condition of the organism, i.e., health, energy, endocrine influences. Thus, these variables make the assessment of auditory discrimination in children with neurological disabilities a never-ending observational task for classroom teachers.

A common symptomatology of neurological and sensory disorders in children is provided by Doll (3). A much abridged version is given below, and readers should understand that this material is no substitute for the original reference.

1. *Behavior* is "organically driven" with manifestations of hyperactivity, irrelevance and anxiety. The overtones are those of apparent neurotic perseveration. . . . It is as if the behavior pattern is atomized (disintegrated) by attempts to improve it.

2. *Posture and movement* reveal awkwardness rather than orthopedic handicap. . . . Skilled observation readily discerns a lack of precision in manipulation and movement.

3. *Intellectual functioning* typically reveals marked retardation or disharmony. . . . Yet the observations suggest interferences to expression rather than essential mental deficiency.

4. *Language* is developmentally retarded, sometimes amounting to developmental aphasia, and shows both tonal and propositional weakness.

5. *Speech* is impaired in articulation, tonal quality, and inflection.

6. *Visual perception* is disturbed, although visual acuity appears generally intact.

7. *Auditory perception* is likewise impaired. Severe hearing loss is usually suspected but . . . auditory acuity appears to be relatively intact except perhaps for weakness of pitch discrimination or tonal perception with obscurity of meaning.

8. *Rhythm* appears to be disturbed but has not yet been adequately appraised for clear symptomatology.

9. *Laterality* disturbances are common with high incidence of left-sided laterality but also many confusions, so that the term "sidedness" is to be preferred to "handedness."

10. *Attention* is distractible . . . the child attending well spontaneously, yet poorly under efforts at control.

11. *Emotionally* the behavior is variously autistic, aggressive, destructive or disturbed. Apathy, resistance and withdrawal alternate with hyperactivity, aggression and anxiety.

12. *Conduct* is dynamically unpredictable, alternating between relatively infantile and mature manifestations.

13. *Learning* reflects these over-all behavior disturbances in variable permutations. . . . These phases of behavior reflect the contradictory and unstable qualities of the personality as a whole.

14. *Social competence* is subnormal for both age level and measured intelligence, but "flashes" of adequacy disturb the evaluation, hinting at "frozen assets."

15. *Concept formation* is restricted and seems best developed through repetition of experience and instruction. Precept and example are not clearly differentiated nor readily assimilated.

16. *Retention* is intermittent, variable uncertain . . . recall efforts are groping; rote exercise substitutes for understanding.

17. *Effort* seems whimsical and willful, with tasks egocentrically pursued, or eccentrically abandoned.

18. *The integrity of behavior* is therefore not well established for any particular sphere of performance or for total adaptation. Its ambivalent qualities are confusion and bewilderment, perhaps best conceived as lacking in focus.

It is noted under common symptomatology of neurological and sensory disorders in children that auditory perception, of which auditory discrimination is one aspect, is usually suspected but is typically a functional disturbance rather than sensory. The

more common sensory weaknesses are pitch discrimination and/or tonal perception. Pitch is correlated with the frequency of sound waves, loudness with their amplitude, and timbre with their complexity. We judge the distance of sounds through loudness, complexity, and volume. They are often located in terms of visual cues. When non-auditory cues are removed, we judge the direction of sounds on the basis of different stimulation of the ears.

Auditory discrimination in the child learning to read is commonly taken to mean the capacity to distinguish between phonemes, or individual sounds in speech. The phoneme is the smallest unit of speech that in any given language distinguishes one utterance from another, i.e., the *p* in pan, the *f* in fan.

Audition is not a function in which all parts are ready to work with equal facility. According to Wepman (9) it develops in at least three levels: (1) acuity—this is the ability of the ear to collect sounds from the environment and transmit them to the nervous system; (2) understanding—this is the ability of the central nervous system to extract or interpret meaning from the sound patterns; (3) discrimination and retention—this is the ability that permits the individual to differentiate and hold sounds in mind long enough to moderate his speech or to make accurate phonic comparisons. All levels of audition are developed roughly by the eighth birthday or the end of the third grade in normal children; but in neurologically disabled children, it

usually follows the individual maturation pattern. The assessment of each child's level of audition can be ascertained roughly from the Bender Gestalt Test.

The production of speech sounds begins during the first year of life with babbling. It has been fairly generally postulated that the infant gradually adapts his own babbling sounds to the sounds of adult speech, partly by direct imitation and partly by selecting those which adults comprehend. Parents mimic babbling into meaningful sounds and aid the child's development of speech and auditory discrimination. But too often this assistance ceases as the child begins to speak in sentences. The patterns of speech are accepted by parents whether or not they are phonetically correct and comprehensible by others outside the family. When speech sounds are not correctly spoken at a later age than six years, auditory discrimination has to be relearned and sounds become harder to discriminate accurately. The threshold of hearing even for pure tones seems to be higher for children of apparently normal hearing than for adults. The neurologically disabled child finds it difficult to learn, and re-learning becomes an even harder task.

In the teaching of reading, good articulation of speech sounds which emphasize consonants is important and helps to eliminate the handicap of bad acoustics in the room. Articulation is an aid to attention and motivation for learning. The amount of detailed and systematic phonetic in-

struction the normal child under seven years is capable of learning is rather small. There is real danger, especially in isolated units, since they fail to hear them correctly, i.e., boy would be heard as *ba oy*. Thus, it is better that children learn to recognize phonetic sounds within familiar words (8). All instruction to neurologically disabled children should be structured to individual patterns of the child's ability to perceive, to recognize, and to recall. The greatest gradient will be in the area of recall and transfer of learning.

The human individual is a mobile organism and is continuously confronted with the task of regulating his movements with reference to the various positions of environmental objects. Auditory objects are thus located in reference to the individual primarily as a reactive organism. Thus, intensity, tonal complexity, pitch, the binaural disparity (stimulation of both ears), and ventriloquism are important stimuli for supplementary experiences in auditory discrimination (2).

Myklebust (5) states over and over again that crucial data for differential diagnosis in auditory disorders lie in the early developmental periods. He points out that the pattern of development and behavior tends to be closely related to the type of deafness or auditory disorder.

Auditory discrimination is a most important function in learning speech, language, and reading. There are certain minimum auditory essentials for learning to speak intelligently. One good ear is almost as

good as two. But if the loss is great in high frequency (3000 c.p.s. and above) in both ears, a child's speech is likely to be affected. High frequency sounds are *s*, *sh*, *ch*, *t*, *k*, and the voiceless *th*. These children substitute one sound for another. A loss of 40-50 decibels is often reflected in deficiency in verbal skills (4).

Pronouncing words is an aid in learning to recognize them in print because the familiar association of the words heard and spoken establishes a link of meaning. Reading aloud, when learning to read, is an aid to learning and auditory discrimination. Hearing the words pronounced while observing the printed word provides the learner who pays close attention with a connection between sound and printed form.

The assessment of auditory discrimination of individual children should be made first to determine normal or impaired hearing. This can be done in a game activity such as "Good Morning." One child sits with back to audience and someone in the audience says good morning to him. The child is to guess who said it. The children who show immature auditory levels can be given supplementary training. The children who show impaired hearing should be referred to the school nurse for a hearing screening test. Those children with speech defects may benefit from speech therapy. All children should be given experiences in identifying familiar sounds, such as "Close your eyes, can you tell by listening what I am doing" (Clap hands, tear paper, whistle, jingle coins, run finger on

comb, play the melody bells, rattle keys, close a door, wind a clock, hit a triangle, etc.) What is making this sound? (water, duck, cow, foot, pitch pipe, autoharp, piano, bell, snake) What is this sound? (hum, cough, splash, snore, laugh) Children should be given experiences in identifying rhyming words in oral context; in selecting picture cues that rhyme; identifying rhymes in controlled and complete isolation, and in supplying rhymes in context or riddles. The degree of difficulty can be increased as skills in auditory discrimination become more refined. These auditory discrimination experiences are for the more immature child, and as maturation advances, auditory discrimination is taught as a listening skill (6).

The assessment and improvement of auditory discrimination in the learning of children with neurological disabilities may be the avenue to social competence and social acceptance for these children. Much in learning and life can be gained through observational appreciation in which auditory discrimination plays a major role. Many of life's cultural values are relayed through auditory channels, and many danger signals are given us through auditory stimuli. The rewards to teachers abound when children with neurological disabilities can discriminate sounds and can transfer these learnings into

scholastic achievement and success.

(Mary Zoepfel is a special teacher of reading in the Glendora Elementary School District, Glendora, California.)

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Pilot Study: Motivation in Reading

by RALPH E. SCHROCK and MILTON GROSSMAN

Purpose

To motivate students who are functioning below grade level in reading so that they can improve in their reading ability.

Hypothesis

Children who continuously fail in reading acquire a negative outlook and defeatist attitude which prevents them from achieving in the reading area. They usually conform to the social and cultural pressures placed upon them, but cannot succeed in reading.

It is believed that if these youngsters were given some special attention, and some possible reason for having failed previously, they would become motivated and improve in their reading ability.

The majority of youngsters having reading difficulties also have some visual difficulties which may not be diagnosed by the administration of the Snellen Eye Test, which is the test usually used in most schools.

Method

- I. Selection of twenty 7th grade students with average intelligence, I.Q.'s ranging from 90 to 110, as based upon C.T.M.M. results, and who are reading two or more grade levels below expectancy.
 1. Administration of the *Key-stone Visual Skills Test*, and the *Lovelle Hand-Eye Co-ordination Test*.
 2. Administration of the *Gray Oral Reading Test*.
 3. The administration of visual training to these students for two 15 minute periods per week for four weeks. (The purpose of the visual training is to provide motivation via special attention, and designed to accomplish *nothing* from a visual standpoint.)
 4. At the end of each session, encouraging remarks to be made regarding reading.
 5. The administration of the *Gray Oral Reading Test* at the conclusion of the four weeks.
- II. A control group of ten 7th grade students with average intelligence, I.Q.'s ranging from 90 to 110, based upon C.T.M.M. results, and who are reading two or more grade levels below expectancy.
 1. Administration of the *Gray Oral Reading Test*.
 2. Administration of the *Gray Oral Reading Test* four weeks later.
- III. A diagnosis based upon "blind analysis" would be made for both groups, in order to determine the degree and type of visual problems which may exist. ("Blind analysis" refers to

the procedure of diagnosing cases without any knowledge of who the subjects were, or whether or not they were in the experimental or control group.)

Findings

Reading:

The experimental group averaged an improvement in reading of seven months over the four week period, while the control group averaged a loss of one month.

Two statistical methods were used to test the null hypothesis.

The difference of the means of the reading scores (*t* score) was significant beyond .005 level ($\frac{1}{2}$ per cent) of confidence.

The Chi Square resulted in significance beyond .005 level ($\frac{1}{2}$ per cent) of confidence. (The .005 level of confidence refers to the Null Hypothesis. The Null Hypothesis indicates the degree that the results of the study were due to chance. A 5 per cent level of confidence is considered significant while a 1 per cent level of confidence is considered very significant.)

Visual:

Visual tests indicated that a very high percentage of these youngsters have some visual malfunction.

The following are the findings of the "blind analysis":

1. Fourteen failed in either horizontal or vertical phoria (alignment of the eyes).
2. Ten failed the Keystone fusion tests; three at near point and seven at far.
3. Twelve subjects failed the Visual

Acuity Tests. Of these, eight were subnormal in near point visual acuity.

4. Four failed the central stereopsis test.
5. Seven failed the near point of convergence test.
6. Seven showed central suppression.
7. Seven of the subjects showed the possibility of neural confusion in reading based upon the lack of unilaterality of the dominant hand and the preferred eye in reading.
8. Many of the subjects showed right to left dominance of hand-eye movement. This, while not abnormal, caused interference in the reading act, and can be improved by proper training.
9. Only seven out of thirty subjects passed even the simple tests of visual performance.

Conclusion

The highly significant result of this project indicates that motivation, or the lack of it, is a major factor in reading disabilities. After approximately six years of failure in the school reading environment with the many emotional implications both at home and at school, the youngster with reading disability tends to have a defeatist attitude toward the reading situation. The school and home environment make it mandatory for him to make the effort to learn to read. Overtly, he goes through the motions in order to meet these demands; but at a subconscious level, he does not participate actively since he lacks any possible opportunity for

success. It is, therefore, extremely important to find some means of motivating this youngster.

This investigation was an attempt to evaluate the factor of motivation in retarded reading. Visual testing and training were used as the stimulation to motivation, and as such were simply tools to the desired environmental conditioning.

The tests used were selected because they were readily available and could be administered quickly and easily. Some useful information is available from their results.

Care must be taken, however, to consider these data within the limitations imposed by the tests themselves.

No attempt at a complete visual analysis was made; and the comments concerning each subject represent a "blind analysis" based upon the skimpy test data, and personal observations.

It is somewhat surprising that so many clear-cut visual problems were evident in this select group. These subjects were non-achievers, and were for the most part retreaters from the visual tasks which produce stress. By avoiding the stress of the visually near-centered task, they are less vulnerable to the adaptive changes that result in refractive abnormalities than the child that enthusiastically plunges into tasks requiring prolonged, near-point concentration.

Any performance outside of the Keystone normal range was checked as a failure. Inability to converge to 2" from the eyes constituted a failure.

Any indication of central suppression was classified a failure.

It would not be accurate to state or assume that vision was the primary etiological factor in any of these cases. It is certainly a contributing factor in many; and the findings suggest that more complete study and evaluation would show vision to be the major retarding factor in some of these cases.

Recommendations

Further study with a larger group over a longer period of time is indicated. A more thorough visual testing program is also strongly indicated.

The following research studies are indicated:

1. A comparison of an experimental group with whom various motivating techniques are used, with a control group over a period of a full semester ($\frac{1}{2}$ school year).
2. A comparison of an experimental group with whom visual training techniques are used with a control group.

It is recommended that research be done in these two areas. A followup test should also be done on these youngsters in order to determine the degree of retention that has been attained.

(Milton Grossman is District psychologist of Sweetwater Union High School District, Chula Vista, California. His co-author, Ralph E. Schrock, is an optometrist and author of numerous articles in the *Optometric Journal*.)

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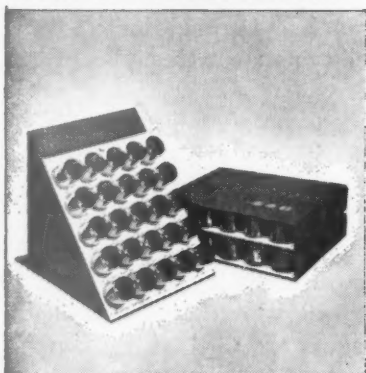
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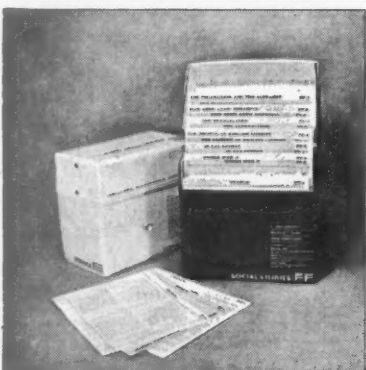
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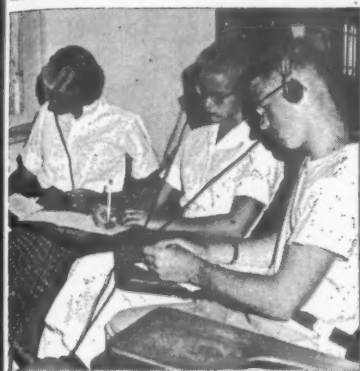
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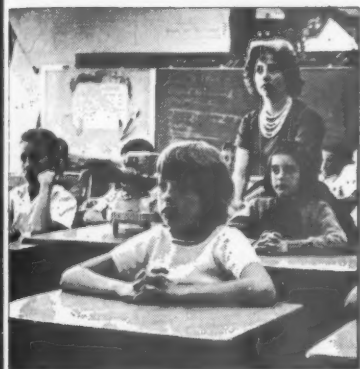
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What RESEARCH Says to the Reading Teacher

BY

AGATHA TOWNSEND

Consultant, Educational Records Bureau

On Books and Book Lists

The reading teacher and the librarian who is his constant resource and support should both be avid collectors of book lists. Both should also develop a degree of critical ability in using the lists and in making their own personal deletions and additions. Filing such materials, keeping them up to date, and amending them as experience with their contents grows is much more than a clerical nuisance. Such activities become a professional task because the fact is that few lists are entirely adequate for all the purposes which must be served by book selection for and with pupils.

It might provide an ideal research tool if comprehensive lists could be coded so that once an analysis was made of the needs and desires of the teacher and pupil, one could enter the lists and locate the books according to code. If one were to imagine the blueprint for such a master list, certain types of information would clearly be needed. One thinks of reading level, interest level, character of contents, literary quality, accuracy of information, and where pertinent, special notes such as quality of illustrations, suitability for reading aloud, and so on. Emphasis would always be on the *purposes* with which the

teacher or librarian enters the list.

Book lists available at present already furnish some of the data necessary. Books which have been in print for several years and seem to be acceptable to pupils in schools and clinics find their way into graded lists. The delay is minimized when reference can be made to the cumulative or annual lists issued by such publishers as the H. W. Wilson Company and the Bowker Company, or under the auspices of the American Library Association and the Child Study Association of America. Indexes such as these should never be overlooked. But many teachers will wish to simplify their tasks by the use of special lists as well.

The most actively growing supply of lists is undoubtedly that group dealing with the needs of the retarded and reluctant reader. Here, an estimate of difficulty is essential. The techniques for measuring the level at which a reader can function effectively have been paralleled by research on the difficulty level, or readability, of materials. It should be stressed, though it often is not, that grade levels assigned from various formulae are not directly comparable with reading grade levels from all standardized or informal reading

tests, any more than grade levels from the tests are interchangeable. Nevertheless, Russell and Merrill (7), in one of the few studies comparing the results of various methods of ranking, did find that librarians gave an average grade placement for materials which closely approximated the average placement derived from six readability formulae. In addition to the fact that reading level is generally reported in fairly useful terms, the lists for retarded readers often add information from another area in which there has been marked research activity—the field of reading interests. An outstanding example of lists produced with combined criteria of interest and level, as well as classification according to topic, is provided by Spache (10), whose book includes many entries published in the late 1950's, and therefore meets the criterion of being up-to-date as well.

Books and journal articles giving lists for remedial groups differ in scope and intent, of course. Trade books are featured in a useful list in the 1953 volume edited by Robinson (5). Another recent list is included in the 1956 edition of Harris's book on diagnosis and remedial teaching (2). Russell and Karp (6), in 1951, published a list which is designed for use with pupils in the junior high school grades who have reading levels as low as Grade 3. Research has been somewhat slower to serve the needs of retarded high school and college readers, but Smith, in 1952, reported on book selection for these groups (9).

Admittedly, enticing the reluctant

reader and providing extra experience with vocabulary, skills, and techniques for the retarded is a challenging field. But, as in so many other areas of research, there is no comparable set of materials for that other big group, the gifted or even the average or superior readers. Clues to lists for able readers are given by Strang and Bracken (11). It is quite true, of course, that the teacher of the more able readers will also find much information in the investigations into reading interests, and can help the willing reader follow up all sorts of avenues to further interest and delight. However, many of the studies of interests, *per se*, must be supplemented by actual book lists, or the conclusions—for instance that the interest in fairy stories reaches its peak in Grades 3 and 4—become of only academic importance.

In other words, the observation that there are fairy stories and fairy stories should lead us to recognize that teachers often wish to recommend books which not only expand interests but which cross the bridge between the aims of the reading program and those of other areas of school growth. Does not reading merge into literary adventure for some pupils? What about choosing books to acquaint the reader with different literary forms? Unfortunately, there are few studies such as Kyte's (4), which analyzed both specialists' and children's evaluations of poems. One also wonders what happens to the reading of what are sometimes called "standard" works—surely a dismal way of referring to

books which not only illuminate the imagination but which are so woven into the texture of our language that unfamiliarity with them makes even a good reader illiterate. Durost (1) was forced to conclude that so far as 120 classic and neo-classic literary works were concerned, high school pupils in his sample "simply are not knowledgeable or informed." Have such works escaped the attention of recent research?

Scanlon (8), too, has pointed out that habits in book reading lead to emphasis on recently published books, and books by a relatively small group of authors, at that. Taylor and Schneider (12) in a recent report could identify a single most popular source of books (this is a circumlocution forced on us because the producer in question is Walt Disney) without much trouble. Good book lists should provide variety even within rather narrow interest categories, and they should give standard works as well as contemporary classics.

Bibliotherapy is not unrelated to the problems of teaching literature—if indeed the good book extends the mental horizon—but it sometimes calls for lists of its own. The teacher should be referred to the thoughtful discussion of the strengths and limitations of the approach which is given by Spache (10). He will also wish to consult Kircher's book (3) which lists and annotates 387 titles. A helpful feature of this book is its wide grade range.*

So one can see, with the addition

of the interest studies to the readability studies, and of the bibliotherapeutic approach to the building of literary acquaintance, that book lists multiply. Aims are served as they are defined. The trend toward proliferation is well illustrated by the recent book by Tooze (13), which gives a list on almost every page. This reference may not meet rigorous research criteria, since data on reading level is very scant and some of the specific recommendations can be questioned, but it has a challenging organization, with sections on helping children adjust to the physical and social world, and notes on emotional, esthetic, and spiritual needs.

The end is not yet, and the needs are pretty clear. So far as reading level goes, we need more work on junior and senior high school levels, and in general nonfiction as well as fiction and biography. As usual, we need far more attention to work with college students and adults. We need evaluations of simplified works for flavor and savor, now that we have good evaluations of them for vocabulary and sentence structure. And we might put in a final plea for evaluations of accuracy in fields like science where oversimplification may lead to error. This last plea takes on the aspect of a personal hobby, and might perhaps end on a personal incident. This author (well known to her friends as an amateur of reptiles) stared with absolute horror at a page of a popular remedial series where she found that a fairly accurate story about the snapping turtle was illustrated with a good clear picture of a

* (See also Chase Dane's article in the present issue of this journal.—Ed.)

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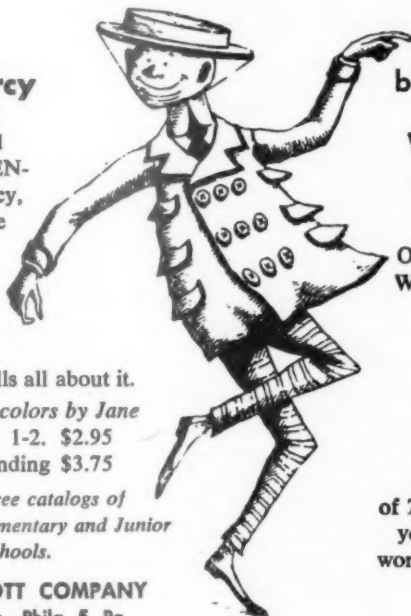
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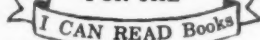
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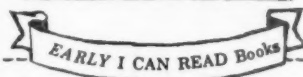
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A Sure Cure for Shrugamug

APPLEGATE, MAUREE. *Easy in English*. Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960. Pp. 564. \$4.00.

This writer still recalls spending a very profitable evening a few years ago reading *Everybody's Business Our Children*, by Mauree Applegate (Row, Peterson and Company, 1952). It was a memorable experience, for it left the reader with a wonderful feeling regarding the importance of teaching, and provided him with a warm, human and exciting philosophy of education. The author appears to have special rights to the title *Easy in English* for she has amply demonstrated that she can make others extremely comfortable reading her books.

The subtitle for this new text is "An Imaginative Approach to the Teaching of the Language Arts." Both titles are most appropriate, for the author has generously shared a storehouse of teaching practices which she has found helpful in guiding boys and girls to greater comfort in the use of the English language. The subjects for her various chapters cover a wide range of topics, including vocabulary building, thinking, listening, speaking, reading, poetry, writing, play-acting, and humor. The author never loses sight of the fact that humor plays an important role in class-

room instruction. In fact, one of her chapter titles reads "Laughter Loosens the Spirit."

The strength of this rambling text, in addition to the author's delightful literary style, is found in the respect and obvious appreciation she has for children's thoughts, ideas, and actions. It is also found in the many examples of creative teaching practices which focus on an instructional program for children. Teachers will be particularly pleased with the "Cupboard of Ideas" which follows every chapter. Each cupboard is full, too!

The chapter on reading is one of the briefest of the entire volume. In it she assures parents that the reading program is in good hands, but that all of us must be always looking for signs of Shrugamug. Shrugamug is a disease peculiar to our civilization and our times. One of the symptoms of this very contagious disease is "... the shrugging off of responsibility toward any task which is hard to learn or to which one is averse." It is evident that she feels that the way we organize our classroom or school for reading instruction may be a factor in controlling this ailment.

Teachers who recognize that too often children must speak and write about things for which they have no thoughts will welcome the spirit and

many suggestions in this valuable book. Eager elementary school principals who are looking for materials to spark a lively and fruitful in-service program for teachers will be pleased to discover *Easy in English*. Put this one on your must read list.

A Source of Inspiration

The immortal words of an American naval hero echoed through the room as a young man, age thirteen, and this writer discussed a new book both of us had recently read, *John Paul Jones* by Stewart Graff, published by Garrard Press, Champaign, Ill., 1961. \$2.25 list price. It seemed appropriate in consideration of the apparent enthusiasm which filled the air at that time to give the words a personal meaning. They seemed to say, "I have not yet begun to read!"

Indeed this appeared to be the moment of renewed hope, confidence and possibly defiance for Dick, my partner in reading. Reading had never before inspired him. He had repeated first and fourth grades, as so many retarded readers do rather futilely, and was now in the sixth grade with instructional needs at a second reader level. He had willingly agreed to spend a few hours a week in an effort to discover ways to better reading. We had written about our experiences, tried various word learning methods, developed some useful phonic principles in spelling, directed attention to comprehension clues in stories, and digested articles and had selected many different books from the library for independent reading. Cowboys, science topics, deep sea divers, frontiersmen, sailors, forest

rangers, humorous beginner stories, and short factual articles had no appeal for him. Dick seemed to be approaching seventh grade in a sinking ship. He undoubtedly heard the call to surrender.

John Paul Jones, one of the new Discovery Books edited by Mary Austin, arrived at the opportune time. Dick was immediately attracted to the colorful and mature illustrations, the large print, and the wide margins; and when he discussed the biography, it was evident that he enjoyed the lively action and detailed information. He read ten chapters the first night and finished it the second. That was how it started. He willingly took another in the same series, *Henry Hudson* by Carl Carmer. The Hudson story was not quite as exciting, but he read it in three days and returned to talk and write about it. These are the moments which could live forever! *Lafayette* by Clare H. Bishop fanned the sparks of interest again, and the remaining books in the series he read practically one each night. The titles included: *Theodore Roosevelt* by James C. Beach, *Benjamin Franklin* by Charles P. Graves, *Daniel Boone* by Katharine E. Wilkie, *Abraham Lincoln* by Anne Colver, *George Washington Carver* by Sam and Beryl Epstein. He even read *Clara Barton* by Mary Catherine Rose and said that he enjoyed the story and action. His favorites are *John Paul Jones*, *Lafayette*, and *Theodore Roosevelt* in the order given.

The new Discovery Books should find their place high in the ranks of the high interest-low readability biographies for boys and girls. They apparently are easy to read and leave the reader with much useful information.



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Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading

AUSTIN, MARY C., AND OTHERS. *The Torch Lighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading*. Boston: Harvard University Press, 1961. Pp. 191. \$1.00.

"The Harvard-Carnegie Reading Study had two major purposes: to learn how the colleges and universities in the United States are now preparing tomorrow's teachers of reading and to suggest recommendations for improving that preparation." Dr. Mary Austin, director of the study and senior author of the report, carefully explains the results of the field study conducted in 74 colleges, reports the findings of the questionnaire returned by 638 reading instructors, and concludes the study with 22 highly significant recommendations for teacher-training institutions seeking to improve the preparation of prospective teachers of reading.

This reviewer would like to include each of the chapter summaries within these pages; then possibly the reader could appreciate the breadth and depth of the study. Chapters concerning the content and conduct of reading courses; reading problems, research, and changes; and practice and theory are three which ought to be before every person who is teaching or planning to teach a course in the methodology of teaching reading. The chapter titled "Admission, Curriculum, and Certification" ought to be read by all who prepare teachers; and certainly any candidate whose goal is the teaching profession should review this chapter.

Any faculty whose primary interest is the improvement of instruction must

carefully review, consider, and weigh each of the thought-provoking recommendations made in the final part of the study. The authors have included suggestions concerned not only with the content of reading courses but also "those areas of administration and instruction which form an integral part of the teacher preparatory program."

These brief remarks are inadequate and prompt the oft-quoted warning:

"A little learning is a dangerous thing;
Drink deep or taste not. . . ."

It is suggested that each reader "drink deep"; there's much to be gained by study of this little volume.

—DODD E. ROBERTS,

Oakland County Schools, Michigan

On Their Own in Thinking

DARROW, HELEN FISHER, and VAN ALLEN, R. *Independent Activities for Creative Learning*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961. Pp. 110. \$1.25.

The content of this useful how-to-do-it booklet is particularly designed to show teachers ways of helping young people develop the ability to manage their own learning and to exercise some creativity in doing so. More than half of the text is devoted to specific examples of independent activities which promote creative learning through searching, organizing, originating, and communicating. The examples have exciting possibilities. This is Bulletin Number 21 in a lively series entitled *Practical Suggestions for Teaching*, edited by Alice Miel. In this bulletin the accent is on the word *practical*.

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What Other Magazines Say About READING

BY

MURIEL POTTER LANGMAN

Eastern Michigan University and Hawthorn Center, Northville, Michigan

TRIVETTE, SUE E. "Effect of Training in Listening for Specific Purposes." *Journal of Educational Research*, March 1961.

This study used fifth-grade subjects who were given daily listening exercises (the procedure is not spelled out), then examined by means of a number of different listening comprehension tests. The training emphasized recognizing the main idea, noting details and making inferences; the tests were in listening for main ideas, details, inferences, understanding word meanings, and following directions. As would be expected, training seemed to make a difference, but there was no mention of a control group in this study.

An interesting finding, a minor one, is that neither parent nor teacher judgment was reliable in identifying the "poor listeners."

SMITH, NILA B. "What Have We Accomplished in Reading?—A Review of the Past Fifty Years." *Elementary English*, March 1961.

This distinguished historian in the reading field, whose book *American Reading Instruction* continues to afford pleasure and insights to all who are interested in reading methods, reviews in detail instructional methods development in the last half century.

WITTY, PAUL. "Reading Instruction,

A Forward Look." *Elementary English*, March 1961.

This article supplements as it follows the one reviewed above. Dr. Witty evaluates all methods in present instructional use, and makes suggestions as to how combinations of psychologically sound approaches can be most constructively used. He concludes by raising a number of important questions.

DUKER, SAM. "Goals of Teaching Listening Skills in the Elementary School." *Elementary English*, March 1961.

Dr. Duker has given us a clear statement of objectives. Who will give us an equally clear statement on methods of teaching listening? See the Trivette study recently reviewed on the training of listening. One of the problems of skill transfer from listening to reading has been well described in the chapter "Do you Know How People Talk?" in Ralph C. Nichols' book *Are You Listening?* It fills one with awe to find that people can and do understand one another at all in a verbal exchange. Have you ever heard a tape of yourself speaking extemporaneously? And have you seen what it looks—and reads—like when it has been transcribed? 'Nuf said.

FULLMER, D. W., and KOLSON, C. J. "A Beginning Reading Vocabulary."

Journal of Educational Research, March 1961.

After reviewing a number of earlier studies briefly and presenting frequency criteria for their list, these investigators present their selection of 184 words, including nouns. This is the shortest list of its kind to date, and one of the goals of the study was to provide such a short list. Here are all the common easy (difficult?) words, selected from previous lists, as has been the accepted procedure. I know we need these lists, but how neutral, flat and featureless these "easy words" are; they are extremely abstract unless they are nouns, because they are relational. I should like now to see some supplementary lists optional for first graders: for boys a list including *airplane, jet, rocket, car, horse, Indian, cowboy*, etc.; for girls one to include names of household articles to which the culture is already directing their interests—perhaps *washing machine, stove* and names of presently popular kinds of clothing; lists to include gardening tools and activities, sports terms, and emphasizing rural or urban environment and experiences.

It is interesting to report that the words "good" and "bad" do not occur in this vocabulary or in Dolch's, although they certainly occur very very early in children's listening vocabularies. It might be interesting to make a comparative study of the rates at which words of striking configuration and intrinsic interest are learned as compared with such demons as *of, to, for*, etc., those relational words which do not even have a motor association, e.g., *up, from, with*. And this thought leads directly to a consideration of the as-

sumptions underlying the following study.

SMITH, EDGAR A. "Devereux Readability Index." *Journal of Educational Research*, April 1961.

This formula uses word lengths as a criterion of word difficulty, substituting it for word and syllable counts. To this criterion it adds sentence length. The investigator presents a justification of these choices and reports his development of the readability formula, then proceeds to the directions for its use. The formula may be applied to materials from upper primary level to mid-college.

PORTERFIELD, O. V., and SCHLICHTING, HARRY F. "Peer Status and Reading Achievement." *Journal of Educational Research*, April 1961.

This study substantiates the findings of an earlier one by Mary Alice Mitchell* in that reading achievement is seen to be related to acceptance by peers. In this study relationships were found at each socio-economic level and for each kind of peer prestige—social, sports, political and academic, with the exception of the low-socio-economic level, where the relationship between sports leadership and reading achievement was not large enough to be significant. The investigators raise a number of excellent questions for further research.

ROTHROCK, DAYTON G. "Heterogeneous, Homogeneous and Individualized Approach to Reading." *Elementary English*, April 1961.

This investigator used fourth-and

**Relationship of Reading to the Social Acceptability of Sixth Grade Children*, T. C., Columbia University, 1949.

fifth-grade children in a school-year-long experiment, matching groups for socio-economic background, class size, materials available, and experience and training of teachers (about which he comments that this factor may not have been fully controlled). The Iowa Every Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Reading Comprehension and Word Study Skills sections (two different forms), were used to measure achievements at the beginning and end of the study. He concluded that whenever good teaching was done with appropriate materials, and children were stimulated, great improvement in reading achievement could occur. He also observed that while over-all gains occurred with all methods ("A well-qualified teacher may still be by far the most important factor"), with the fourth quartile group some form of grouping within the individualized instruction was found to be effective, especially in teaching work-study skills.

Some excellent comments are offered on the implications of this study. It is the first to my knowledge to throw light on the common phenomenon of improvement whenever a new method is tried in a school situation, or at any rate, the first to observe this phenomenon in a controlled situation.

NATCHEZ, GLADYS. "Oral Reading Used as an Indicator of Reactions to Frustration." *Journal of Educational Research*, April 1961.

Using a neat and ingenious procedure involving matched groups of retarded and nonretarded readers, and utilizing for analysis classroom behavior

protocols as well as school records and teacher judgements, Dr. Natchez reports that fifth- and sixth-grade boys with reading difficulties (there was a mean difference between the two groups of almost four years in reading achievement) showed significantly more dependence, aggression, and withdrawal behavior while reading orally than did nonretarded readers. Moreover, it was found that the retarded readers manifested far more of the frustration type of behavior in situations not involving reading.

This study points up the importance of assessing academic problems of middle-grade children as part of a consideration of behavior problems.

ARTLEY, A. STERL. "An Eclectic Approach to Reading." *Elementary English*, May 1961.

Dr. Artley discusses the importance of avoiding extremes in educational practice and the espousal of the single method of teaching. He urges the use of combinations of effective methods and a flexible, open-minded acceptance and experimentation with research findings. He buttresses his discussion with recommendations from Gray, Gates, and Betts, and cites a number of studies making use of combinations of individual and group teaching, basal and other materials with good teacher-pupil relationships. He concludes with the statement that research has not supported the value of choosing any single method, and that combining the best features of each method into an effective pattern would be the wisest procedure for the improvement of instruction.

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Conference Proceedings

There seems to be a fairly consistent pattern in the development of reading conferences. First the conference is established and becomes an annual event. Within a few years, the requests for copies of the talks or summaries of discussions become so numerous that the sponsors of the conference decide that proceedings should be published.

The Lehigh University Reading Conference shows this progression. In the ten years since it was established in 1951, conference attendance has grown from about 250 to over 1,600. The first volume of the proceedings of the Lehigh University Reading Conference is published this year, on the tenth anniversary of the first conference, and is titled *Controversial Issues in Reading*.

Albert J. Mazurkiewicz, Editor. *Controversial Issues in Reading*. Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Reading Conference, Lehigh University. Copies may be ordered from the Reading and Study Clinic, Department of Education, Lehigh University, Bethlehem Pennsylvania. \$2.50.

Resource Material

Studies in the Mass Media is a publication of the National Council of Teachers of English, new in the year 1960-61. Teachers of English

and of reading in the secondary school will find it a source of material for units relating to the mass media, as well as interesting reading for their own general information. One issue may be devoted to a study guide for a motion picture, another to a study of newspapers and magazines, another to an outstanding television program. You may get a single copy for \$0.30, after which you will undoubtedly find the magazine so valuable that you will want to subscribe (\$2.00 per year) and have a copy monthly from October through May. The price per copy is much less if ordered for an entire class.

Studies in the Mass Media, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

Reading Classics

Allen W. Stewart of the American Book Company responded to a recent item about Barbara Cooney's adaptation of the Blue Backed Speller with an appreciation of Miss Cooney's book and a suggestion that you might want to know that his company publishes *Webster's Blueback Speller*, using printing and binding techniques of the era when it was in wide use. In addition, they have available single copies or complete sets of the *McGuffey Eclectic Readers*. Here is real source material if your young



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historians want to dramatize procedures of the one-teacher schoolhouse of the 19th century.

The Blueback Speller, \$1.80. *The McGuffey Readers* (seven titles), \$16.24.

Budget Books

The most recent revision of *Children's Books for \$1.25 or Less* brings up-to-date the list published in 1959 to include 1960 publications. The committee that has compiled the bibliography points out that there is a growing number of paperback editions of good stories for older children. The titles of books are organized, as in previous editions, under headings descriptive of the content of the books. A Title Index and excellent cross references increase the ease of use of the bibliography.

Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington 16, D. C. \$0.75.

Bibliographies

A committee of teachers and librarians has compiled two book lists recently published by the Independent Schools Education Board. *The Junior Book List* includes books for children from pre-school age through grade nine. The books are classified by grade level. The *Senior Book List* for high school students is classified by literary form and by subject matter.

Order from Esther Osgood, Executive Secretary, Independent Schools Education Board, Milton 86, Massachusetts. \$0.50 each.

Book Selection Aids

Although Barbara Olson uses the title, "Aids for Librarians in Elementary Schools," her materials will be welcomed by many teachers who have the responsibility for ordering books and magazines for classroom libraries. General book lists, book lists on special subjects, indexes, and lists of magazines are included in the bibliography which appears in *Elementary English* for May, 1961.

For Primary Readers

Many of the readers of this column took advantage of the first compilation by Patrick Groff, which listed authors, titles, and publishers of trade books which first grade children can read. The list has been revised and expanded. It now includes, for some books, a specific indication as to reading level.

Dr. Groff is again making the list available at the cost of typing, paper, and postage. You may order "Recent Easy Books for First-Grade Children" from Dr. Patrick Groff, San Diego State College, San Diego 15, California. \$0.25.

High School Reading

Reprints of four articles which have appeared in the *English Journal* are brought together in a pamphlet, "What We Know About High School Reading." The contributors are Margaret J. Early, Constance M. McCullough, John J. DeBoer, and Helen Hanlon. Order from National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois. \$0.50.

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PRESIDENT'S REPORT

BY

WILLIAM D. SHELDON

President, International Reading Association

ONE OF the responsibilities of your president is that of organizing the annual conference. It seems to me that this is a most formidable task as I look at the programs we have enjoyed since 1956. The quality of speeches, the issues discussed, and the range of participation seem impossible to duplicate; yet we are gradually assembling all the parts which will go together to make the San Francisco program.

The papers read at our meetings are preserved in our annual Proceedings, and your president has found past issues an invaluable source of ideas. It is regrettable that what we have to say seldom reaches the general public. If the Proceedings could be read widely and understood by parents, teachers, and the critics of modern reading instruction, the sensational articles in various popular magazines would not receive the kind of reception they now do.

We would not limit our critics, of course, but we would hope that in some way we could give the general public some notion of what is happening in the reading classes in our country. The information which is now gained through popular articles often distorts the facts or ignores the truth. It is true that many articles serve to put the reading specialist on his mettle and send him to research and to a re-appraisal of his own activities. It is certain that a shocking

best seller on reading written six years ago caused a healthy reaction among reading teachers and specialists alike. The problem, however, is that each attack on our schools, whether on reading, textbooks or on school personnel, may weaken the structure of our school system, for a rebuttal is seldom given as widespread publicity as the original attack.

Unfortunately the defensiveness of our position places our cause, that of good reading instruction for all boys and girls, in a poor light. Our critics have many unwitting allies in the parents of boys and girls who, in spite of our best efforts, do not learn to read. There are also those allies who look at a mature man and blame all of his inadequacies of reading and thinking on poor reading instruction when he was a child.

Our critics have another set of powerful allies. These are fellow teachers who attack a certain segment of the school, usually the lower elementary grades, and level all sorts of charges against method and material without knowing very much about either.

I hope that the IRA and its many members find some way to inform the public of the nature of our task and how it is accomplished so that every slick article and opportunistic book will not cause the public to assault and perhaps weaken the resolve of our teachers.

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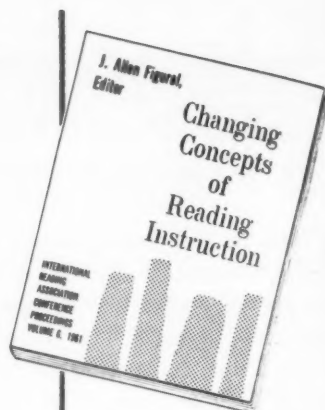
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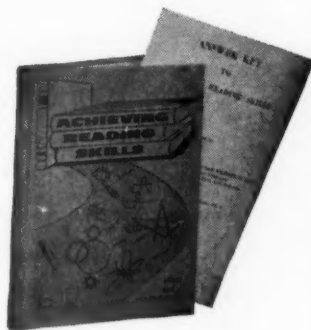
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READING INSTRUCTION in the SECONDARY SCHOOL

by Henry A. Bamman, Sacramento State College, Ursula Hogan, Educational Consultant, Sacramento County, California, and Charles E. Greene, Former Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado. 1961. 266 pp., \$4.25

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HOW TO INCREASE READING ABILITY

by Albert J. Harris, Queens College, Flushing. Fourth Edition, 1961. 624 pp. \$6.00

Topics that have been extensively rewritten include: factors influencing readiness; the teaching of beginning reading; individualized and group reading; causation of reading disabilities; teaching for independence in work recognition; and improvement of rate of reading. Lists of references, workbooks, commercial reading games, booklets, etc., have been brought up-to-date.

FUNDAMENTALS OF BASIC READING INSTRUCTION

by Mildred A. Dawson and Henry A. Bamman, both of Sacramento State College. 1959. 304 pp. illus. \$4.25

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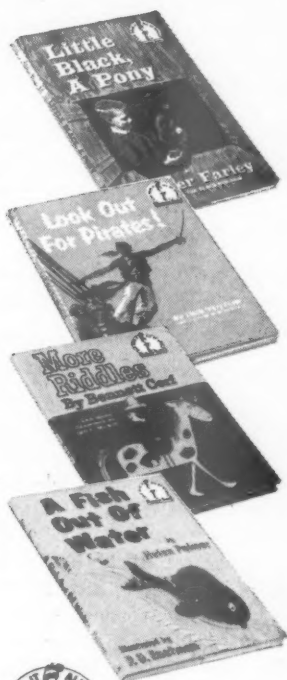
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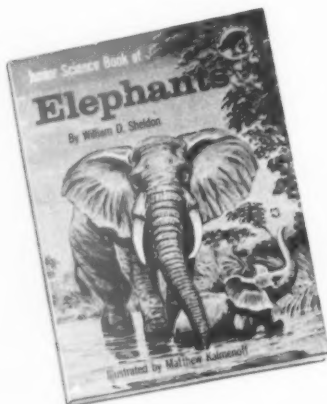


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